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PART 1:

ROMAN HISTORY

1. The First Punic War 264 -241BC

Carthage was a great seafaring and trading nation said to have been founded by the Phoenician people from Tyre (modern day Lebanon). This was why the Romans called them Punici or Poeni (the Latin for Phoenician).

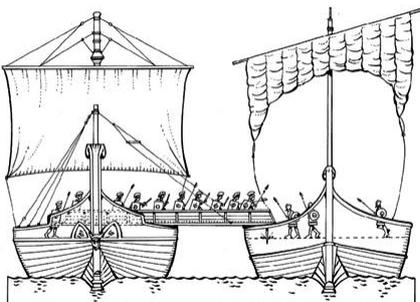
While **Rome** was gaining control over the whole of Italy, the Carthaginians had been building up their own empire in North Africa. They controlled the whole coast from Libya westwards and also the Mediterranean islands of Sardinia and Corsica. The Carthaginians made use of mercenary troops from many different countries in their army and navy. By the end of the fourth century BC it was obvious that a conflict between the two great Mediterranean powers of Carthage and Rome was inevitable. The conflict began in 264 BC over the island of **Sicily** which lay in a strategic position between the two powers.

At this time **Sicily** was divided into three unequal parts.

1. The centre and the west of the island was controlled by the Carthaginians.
2. The east was controlled by Hiero of Syracuse (a city on the east coast of Sicily).
3. The port of Messana in the North East was controlled by the Mamertini. These were former mercenaries from Campania.

The Romans came to Italy ostensibly to help the Mamertini in their struggles against Hiero of Syracuse, but they soon became involved in a war with the Carthaginians. There were five significant events in this war.

1. In **262BC** the Romans besieged and captured the fortress of **Agrigentum** from the Carthaginians. This was an important land victory for the Romans.

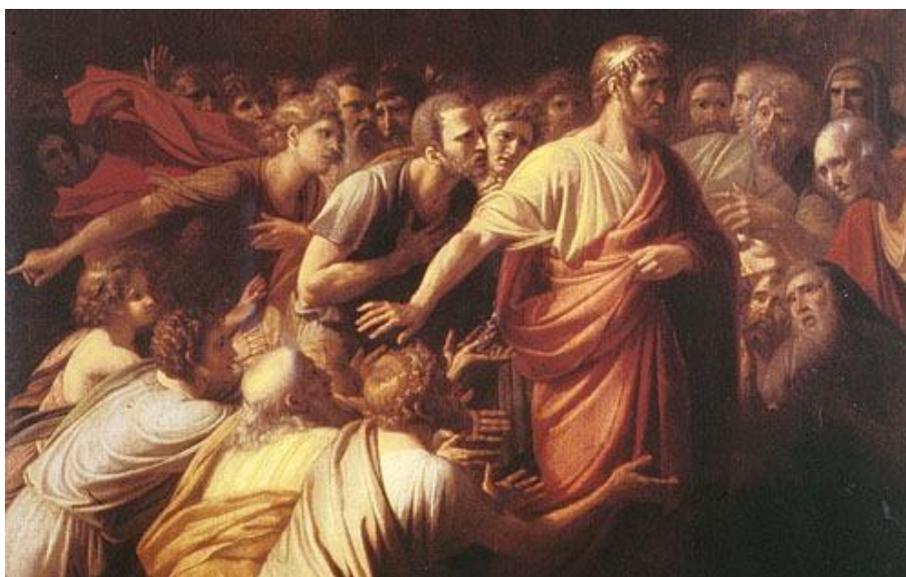


2. However, at the same time the Carthaginian fleet was attacking the Italian coasts and it was obvious that sea power would be needed to win the war against the Carthaginians. So in **260BC** the Romans began to build their **first war fleet**. They closely copied the design of a Carthaginian ship which had

been wrecked off the coast of Italy. However, they also added a new important feature to

the ship, a type of bridge called a *corvus*. This was a large plank tied to the mast of the ship with a sharp spike at the end of it. The plan was that when the Romans got close to the Carthaginian ships, they would drop the plank, which would stick into the enemy's deck. They would then be able to run onto the enemy ship. This would make naval battles more like land battles. The plank was called a *corvus* because its sharp curve looked like a crow's beak. The Romans built 100 of these ships in sixty days, and trained new crew to row while sitting on benches in the forum. Their hard work paid off and in **260BC**, the Romans won a great naval victory over the Carthaginians at **Mylae** in north east Sicily.

3. In **256BC** the Roman fleet, commanded by the Roman general, Regulus, defeated the Carthaginians at **Ecnomus** in southern Sicily. Then the Romans invaded Africa and at first had such success that the Carthaginians begged for peace.



4. However, in **255BC** the Romans suffered a great setback when Regulus' army was almost completely destroyed by the Carthaginian army under the command of the Spartan mercenary Xanthippus at the **Battle of Tunis**. Regulus was sent back to Rome by the Carthaginians to arrange peace. However, the upright Roman told the Romans to keep fighting. He then returned to Carthage, despite the protests of his family, where he was killed. His nobility was greatly admired by the Romans.

5. After that terrible defeat, the Romans limited themselves to land manoeuvres in Sicily until 242BC when they built another fleet. And then finally in **241BC** the Romans won a decisive sea battle off the **Aegates Islands** in north east Sicily. The Carthaginian commander at this battle was **Hamilcar Barca**. He had successfully used guerrilla warfare against the Romans, but the Carthaginian government didn't give him enough troops, and so the Romans were victorious. A peace treaty was signed between Rome and Carthage. This was the end of the First Punic War.

There were **three significant results** of the First Punic War:

1. Rome got control of the sea.
2. Rome got control of Sicily. It became Rome's first overseas 'province'.
3. Carthage agreed to give back all their Roman prisoners and to pay a war indemnity of 3,200 talents.

Between the First and Second Punic Wars

The Romans: In 238BC the Romans took advantage of difficulties in Carthage and seized the **islands** of Sardinia and Corsica, and in 228BC the Romans captured the island of Corcyra and got rid of the **pirates** in the Adriatic Sea.

The Carthaginians: In search of a new empire, **Hamilcar Barca** (Barca means Lightning Bolt), crossed to **Spain** in an attempt to build up Carthaginian power. His eventual aim was to renew the war against Rome. He won over many Spanish tribes to his side, either by conquest or by diplomacy. After Hamilcar's death, his work was continued by his son-in-law Hasdrubal; and then, after his death by his son **Hannibal**.

In **228BC** a **treaty** was drawn between Rome and Carthage which set the northern boundary of the Carthaginian empire in Spain at the river **Ebro**.

2. The Second Punic War 219-202 BC

Hannibal besieged the town of **Saguntum** in 219BC to try and provoke the Roman into declaring war on him. Although Saguntum was south of the river Ebro and therefore within the Carthaginian sphere of influence, it had an alliance with Rome. After a siege lasting several months Hannibal captured Saguntum and destroyed it, killing some Roman and Italian merchants. The Romans immediately declared war on him. There were three phases to the Second Punic War.

A. The First Phase of the Second Punic War: 219-216 BC

Hannibal had a huge army of about 35,000 men including infantry from Carthage, Spain, and Greece, and cavalry Numidia. He assembled them at New Carthage in south eastern Spain in the spring of 218BC. He also had about 37 elephants and many pack animals. He left his brother Hasdrubal in charge of Spain and headed towards Rome for war. In some ways the easiest route would have been by sea, but by now the Romans had control of the Mediterranean. So Hannibal marched his army by land to Italy. He headed northwards, meeting with some opposition from local tribes at the Pyrenees and the river Rhone, but he crossed both successfully, using huge wooden rafts to transport the elephants.

The Roman consul Publius Cornelius **Scipio** caught sight of Hannibal's army at the Rhone and realised that Hannibal's plan was to cross the Alps into Italy. He sent his brother Gnaeus Cornelius Scipio Calvus into Spain with an army and himself returned to Italy with another army to wait for the Carthaginians. Gnaeus Cornelius Scipio Calvus successfully took control of part of Spain which meant that Hannibal's supplies and reinforcements were immediately limited, but nevertheless Hannibal kept up his march.

He began his amazing crossing of the **Alps** as autumn was drawing near. 35,000 men and hundreds of animals struggled upwards, attacked by Gallic tribes who rolled huge boulders down on them from above. Thousands of men and many valuable supplies were lost. The descent was made even more difficult because of ice and snow and by the steep and narrow mountain tracks. An army of 25,000 frostbitten and exhausted men finally struggled into northern Italy that winter. Hannibal had lost around 10,000 men as well as many animals.

The battles of the three Ts: Ticinus, Trebia, and Trasimene

1. Hannibal first met the Roman army, commanded by the consuls Publius Cornelius Scipio and T. Sempronius Lentulus, near a small river in northern Italy called **Ticinus**. The battle was a decisive victory for the Carthaginians. Publius Cornelius Scipio was severely wounded and Sempronius took over the command of the whole army.
2. The next battle was at the river **Trebia** where the Roman army was encamped. The river was an icy torrent at that time of year. Hannibal planned everything before the battle. He got his men up early and they had their breakfast. He hid 5,000 cavalry and his battle elephants behind some small hills. At dawn he sent a small force across the river to attack the Romans. They woke and without food drove the Carthaginians across the river. Hannibal's warm, dry and well fed soldiers were waiting. The Romans were so cold they could hardly hold their weapons. In the middle of the battle Hannibal released his hidden cavalry and elephants. Thousands of Romans were killed or drowned in the river. Most of the army, however, retreated to the Roman colony of Placentia.
3. At Lake **Trasimene** in 217BC, Hannibal planned an ambush on a huge scale. He hid Gauls (who had come over to his side) in the thickly wooded slopes around the lake. There was a narrow pass along the shore of the lake. As the Romans marched along the path under the command of their new and reckless general and consul, Flaminius, the Gauls attacked them and slaughtered the general and 15,000 of his men.

Shocked by the defeat at Trasimene, the Romans appointed **Quintus Fabius Maximus** as dictator for the next six months. This meant that he had absolute power. Fabius understood the kind of tactics needed to defeat Hannibal, who was too good a general to be defeated in open battle. So the Roman army shadowed the Carthaginians but did not offer battle against them, while at the same time making sure that no Italian cities went over to the Carthaginian side. Fabius' aim was to wear Hannibal's army down by slowly keeping them on the move in unfriendly territory. These tactics were not at all popular with the army, since the soldiers hated standing idly by while the Carthaginians roamed all over the most fertile parts of Italy, burning houses and crops, stealing cattle and killing people. Fabius' tactics earned him the nickname Cunctator (Delayer). Ovid refers to this in Poem 13 on your course called *The Fabian Name Lives On*: "You may be sure that in the future you might be able, Maximus, to be born, for whom, by delaying, the state was to be restored. (Quintus Fabius Maximus Cunctator is believed to have descended from the one survivor of the massacre of the Fabians.)"

The Roman senate eventually grew tired of this waiting game. So they first made Fabius share power with his second in command, Minucius; and then, when the six months were up, they chose two new consuls for 216BC. They assembled a huge army of 90,000 men (twice the size of Hannibal's army) and marched south to Apulia in the heel of Italy where Hannibal had captured **Cannae**.

It was here at Cannae in June of 216BC that the Romans suffered one of the greatest disasters of their history. The Roman army, led by the consuls Paullus and Varro was almost annihilated. Over 50,000 Romans were killed. The battle was one of the most famous of all times and Hannibal's tactics have since been imitated since many times.

Hannibal's Tactics at Cannae

- He placed his camp in such a position that dust would blow into the eyes of the Romans.
- He placed his cavalry on the wings and infantry in the middle just as the Romans did but, whereas the Roman infantry line was specially strengthened, Hannibal deliberately left his line weak in the centre. This meant that the Carthaginians retreated quickly which led the Romans further into the Carthaginian lines.
- Then, slowly moving in from both sides, Hannibal's heavy infantry caught the Romans in a pincer movement.
- Hannibal's second-in-command, Maharbal, with the Carthaginian cavalry, drove off the Roman cavalry and then returned to completely surround the Roman army.

At the end of the day the Carthaginians lost 5,000 men and the Romans 60,000. After this victory Hannibal wanted to let his troops rest and refused to march directly on Rome. It will always be asked whether Hannibal would have captured Rome if he had attacked immediately; Maharbal begged him to do so saying: "You know how to win a battle Hannibal but not how to use your victory".

After the battle of Cannae most of the southern Italians, including tribes from Apulia, Lucania and Samnium went over to Hannibal's side. Capua, the second most important city in Italy also went over to Hannibal. Central Italy remained loyal to Rome, but the loyalty of many other Roman allies wavered.

The Second Phase of the Second Punic War: 215 -207 BC

The Romans now reappointed Quintus Fabius Maximus Cunctator who reverted to his guerrilla tactics. There were four important events in this phase of the war.

1. The war in Sicily

In 216 BC Hiero of Syracuse, Rome's ally for many years died and the Syracusans decided to go over to Hannibal's side along with other Sicilian cities. So in 214BC the Roman consul, Marcellus, besieged Syracuse, which was brilliantly defended by various war machines invented by the famous mathematician Archimedes. However, in 212BC, Syracuse was captured and Marcellus led his soldiers run riot. Among their victims was Archimedes. The rest of Sicily was soon subdued by the Romans.

2. The siege of Capua

In 212 BC Capua was besieged by the Romans and although Hannibal tried to create a diversion by pretending to march on Rome, the Romans kept up the siege and Capua soon surrendered. The citizens were severely punished by the Romans for their defection to Hannibal.

3. The recovery of Tarentum

In 213BC Tarentum had been betrayed to Hannibal by traitors inside the city. In 209 BC the city was recovered for the Romans by Quintus Fabius Maximus Cunctator.

4. The war in Spain.

- In 217BC Publius Cornelius Scipio joined his brother Cnaeus in Spain. They had many successes and prevented Hasdrubal from joining his brother Hannibal in Italy.
- However, in 211BC Hasdrubal attacked the Scipio brothers separately and defeated their armies. Both the Scipio brothers were killed.
- After their deaths the son of Publius Cornelius Scipio, also called Publius Cornelius Scipio, was given command of the Roman armies in Spain. In 210BC he struck a decisive blow against the Carthaginians by capturing New Carthage, the Punic capital in Spain, which had immense stores of provisions. Then in 208BC he defeated Hasdrubal.
- Hasdrubal then decided to lead his army into Italy to join Hannibal. He eluded Scipio by marching up the Portuguese coast and then followed Hannibal's route into Italy. In 207BC he crossed the Alps into Italy but was defeated and killed by the combined armies of the Roman consuls, Livius and Nero, at the river Metaurus. The first Hannibal knew of this disaster was when his brother's head was thrown into his camp by a Roman horseman.

B. The Third Phase of the Second Punic War: 207-202 BC

In 206BC Scipio completed the conquest of Spain by capturing the Gades (Cadiz). However, Hannibal still had a foothold in Italy. By now, he had been there with his army for over ten years. Scipio wanted to lure him out of Italy. He was sure that an attack on Carthage itself would make him return to defend his native city. So he persuaded the reluctant senate to allow him to recruit and train an army in Sicily for this purpose.

In 204BC Scipio landed in Africa and joined forces with Massinissa, king of Numidia, who had a strong cavalry. After two great victories, Scipio reached Carthage. Just as Scipio hoped, Hannibal and his 15,000 troops were recalled from Italy to defend the city. The final battle took place in 202BC at **Zama**. Hannibal was defeated and the power of Carthage was broken.

In the peace settlement of 201BC Carthage was allowed to keep its independence but had to: (1) destroy its fleet; (2) surrender all Roman prisoners, (3) pay a war indemnity of 10,000 talents to the Romans, and (4) promise never to begin a war again without the consent of the Romans.

Hannibal fled to the east to the court of King Prusias of Bithynia, all the time being tracked by Roman soldiers. Finally cornered, he took poison in 183BC. Scipio became a national hero, and became known as **Scipio Aemilianus Africanus Maior**. He was given the extra name Africanus. He returned to Rome and became a famous patron of poets, artists and musicians. Later he was charged with stealing money. He was set free after his trial but he was dissatisfied with Rome and he left the city and died in exile in 183 BC.

Sample Short Past Paper Questions: The Second Punic War

1. What action by Hannibal led to the Second Punic War?
2. Describe the route taken by Hannibal to invade Italy in the Second Punic War.
3. What happened at the battle of Lake Trasimene in 217BC? / How did the Romans react when defeated at Lake Trasimene in 217 BC?
4. What part did Quintus Fabius Maximus Cunctator play in the war against Hannibal?
5. What happened at the battle of Cannae in 216 BC? / What tactics helped Hannibal to win the battle of Cannae in 216 B.C.?
6. Which famous mathematician was killed when the Romans captured the city of Syracuse in 211B.C.?
7. How did Archimedes help to defend Syracuse? What happened to him when the Romans captured the city in 211 BC?
8. Where was Zama? What happened there in 202 BC?

3. LIFE OF Hannibal (c.246-182BC)



Hannibal was a Carthaginian general. Hannibal spent his youth with his father, Hamilcar Barca (Lightening Bolt), on campaign in Spain. At the age of nine, his father had him swear an oath of eternal enmity to Rome. In 222BC he became commander-in-chief of all Carthage's armies. Three years later, in 219BC, he besieged the town of Saguntum in order to provoke Rome into declaring war on him. Saguntum was south of the river Ebro, but it was also a Roman ally. This started the Second Punic War between Carthage and Rome.

Hannibal left his brother Hasdrubal in charge of Spain and began his march to Italy with an army of about 40,000 men and 37 elephants to Italy in 218BC. His route took him northwards; he crossed the Pyrenees, the river Rhone, and the Alps. He arrived in Italy that winter. Hannibal was victorious against the Romans at the battles of Ticinus (218BC), Trebbia (218BC) and Trasimene (217BC).

The Romans appointed Quintus Fabius Maximus Cunctator to try to defeat him, but the Romans soon grew tired of his delaying tactics and instead decided to fight Hannibal at the battle of Cannae (216BC). Hannibal was again victorious, virtually annihilating the Roman army. There were 50,000 Roman casualties. It was the worst ever defeat suffered by the Romans.

After this, Rome's allies began to defect to Carthage, including Sicily, tribes from Apulia, Lucania and Samnium, and the second most important city in Rome, Capua. In fact, Hannibal remained unbeaten on Italian soil for 16 years. However, he never marched on Rome, and over time Rome gradually subjected her allies again, including Sicily (212BC), Capua (212BC), and Tarentum (209BC). In 208BC his brother Hasdrubal marched from Spain to join him in Italy, but he was defeated at the river Metaurus.

Then, in 202BC, Hannibal was recalled to Carthage to fight Scipio Africanus Maior at Zama. He was defeated. After his defeat and the end of war, he devoted his attention to reforming the government of Carthage. In 196 he was elected suffete (chief magistrate). However, he made himself unpopular with the aristocracy, who alleged to Rome that he was plotting with King Antiochus III the Great of Syria. Rome arrived to investigate in 195BC, and Hannibal immediately fled to the Syrian court. Then after the Battle of Magnesia (190BC), he went to Bithynia where, in 182, to avoid Roman capture, he committed suicide by taking poison which he kept hidden in a ring.

Sample Long Past Paper Question: Hannibal

Imagine you are Hannibal trapped in Bithynia by Roman soldiers and about to die. Write a final letter outlining your career and justifying your hatred of the Romans.

4. LIFE OF Scipio Africanus Maior (236-183BC)



Scipio Africanus Maior's full name is Publius Cornelius Scipio Africanus Maior. Scipio was born in 236BC and is said to have saved his father's life at the battle of the river Ticinus in 218. (His father's name was also Publius Cornelius Scipio.) As a military tribune he is also said to have rallied the survivors of the battle of Cannae. He was an aedile in 213.

In 210 he was appointed to the command in Spain. He was the first person to have received this power without previously being a consul or a praetor. In Spain he followed the aggressive policy of his father and uncle. (His uncle's name was Gnaeus Cornelius Scipio Calvus). In 209 he captured New Carthage, the main Carthaginian supply base in Spain. In 208, he defeated Hasdrubal, but when Hasdrubal began his march to Italy Scipio decided not to follow him. Instead, he stayed to continue the fight against the Carthaginians in Spain.

In 205 he was elected consul. He wanted to move the war against the Carthaginians to Africa, and despite opposition from Quintus Fabius Maximus Cunctator, he was granted permission. In 204 he landed in Africa. Scipio then pretended to negotiate peace with the Carthaginians, but instead used the time to discover the details of their camps. He found out that they were made of wood and reeds, and so in 203 he destroyed their camps with fire. Large numbers of Carthaginian troops were killed. More battles followed between the two sides until finally Hannibal returned from Italy. Scipio defeated him at the battle of Zama in 202BC. It was then that he received the cognomen *Africanus*. He returned to Rome to celebrate a triumph.

Scipio now had great prestige in Rome. Legends grew up around him. He is believed to have informed his troops that Neptune told him in a dream that he would help him in capture of New Carthage. Some even believed that he was the son of Jupiter. However, his success also meant that he had many enemies.

He was elected censor in 199 and consul again in 194. In 190 he went to Asia with his brother to fight King Antiochus III the Great of Syria who was attacking Greece. However, because of illness, he took no part in the ensuing battle itself, called the battle of Magnesia. He was nonetheless chosen to present the harsh Roman peace terms to the enemy Antiochus after his defeat.

Then in the 180s he was accused by one of his enemies, Cato, of embezzling public funds and of taking bribes from Antiochus. It is possible that he was even attacked in the senate in 187. In any case, he avoided trial and retired into voluntary exile to Campania where he died the following year in 183.

Sample Long Past Paper Question: Scipio Africanus Maior

Imagine you are Publius Scipio Africanus Maior. You have just left Rome for your estate in Campania. Write a letter to the Senate outlining your services to Rome.

5. The Third Punic War 149-146 BC

More than fifty years later, by 149BC, Carthage was recovering economically and concentrating all its energies on building up its trade. During this time they kept to the terms of the peace treaty, and did not take part in any war. However, many Romans believed that Carthage was still a great threat and should be destroyed, including Cato, who had for years ended every speech he made in the Senate with the words: ***delenda est Carthago***, "Carthage must be destroyed."

In 150BC, the Carthaginians finally broke the terms of the peace treaty. They were provoked into battle by Massinissa of Numidia, an ally of Rome, whom the Romans had been encouraging to attack Carthaginian territory. Of course, the Romans seized the opportunity to intervene in Carthaginian affairs. They demanded that the Carthaginians should surrender all their weapons, evacuate Carthage, raze it to the ground and build a new city at least sixteen kilometres from the sea. This move would effectively destroy Carthage's trading pre-eminence. Carthage refused. War ensues in 149BC and in 146 BC the Carthaginians were finally defeated by Scipio Aemilianus. Their city was destroyed in 146BC, and its territory became a Roman province. Scipio Aemilianus was known as **Scipio Aemilianus Africanus Minor**.

Sample Short Past Paper Questions: The Third Punic War

1. What happened to Carthage when it was defeated by the Romans in 146 BC?
2. What is the meaning of *delenda est Carthago* and who used these words?
3. Which city did Scipio Aemilianus destroy in 146 BC? Which city did he destroy in 133 BC?
4. How did Scipio Aemilianus get the titles Numantinus and Africanus?
5. Name two great cities destroyed by the Romans in 146 BC.

6. Rome Conquers the East, 205-133BC

In between the First and Second Punic Wars the Romans became involved in a series of wars in both the east and west around the Mediterranean Sea. At the end of these wars the Romans were left in control of both these whole areas. The wars in the East include the 3 Macedonian Wars, the Syrian War, and the war between Rome and the Achaean League.

The 1st Macedonian War (215-205BC).

This war was fought between Rome and King Philip V of Macedon.

The Macedonian wars were three wars fought between Rome and Macedon (also known as Macedonia). Macedon covered most of modern-day northern Greece. The First Macedonian war was between Rome and King Philip V of Macedon. He had decided to take advantage of Rome's preoccupation with the Carthaginians. He did two things: (a) he invaded the coastal area of Illyria, which was under control of the Romans since the Romans had rid the Mediterranean of pirates; and (b) after the battle of Cannae, he made an alliance with Rome's enemy, Hannibal.

Rome reacted by (a) attacking Philip's allies, and (b) by making alliances with Pergamum and the Aetolian League which was a group of city states occupying the centre of Greece. These states also attacked Philip. Peace was made in 205BC. It was called the Peace of Phoenice.

The 2nd Macedonian War (200-197BC).

This war was a second war fought between Rome and King Philip V of Macedon.

The Second Macedonian war was also fought between Rome and King Philip V of Macedon. Five years after the first war, in 200BC, Rome, encouraged by Rhodes and Pergamum, decided on another war with Philip. Rhodes and Pergamum were both allies of Rome and they were afraid of Philip's growing power. They were especially concerned because Philip had now made an alliance with King Antiochus of Syria and they believed that were both now threatening to attack Egypt which was another ally of Rome. Rome began the war with the consul Sulpicius Galba invading Macedon. By 198 Philip was ready for peace. However, Flaminius, who was now the consul, delayed negotiations until he heard that his command had been extended for another year. He then defeated the Macedonians at Cynoscephalae (197). The Macedonians were forced to: (1) give up the territory they had conquered; (2) pay a war indemnity and (3) allow Rome to determine Macedonian foreign policy in future. However, at this stage the Romans did not want permanent responsibility for governing Greece. So they announced that Greeks were now free. However, significantly the Romans did not withdraw their garrisons until 188 BC. The Greeks were not free at all.

The 3rd Macedonian War (172-168BC).

This was fought between Rome and against King Perseus of Macedon.

The revival of Macedonian power under, King Philip V's son, King Perseus, alarmed Rome. Perseus had begun to make alliances in Greece and elsewhere in the east. Rome was suspicious. In 172BC, this led to the Third Macedonian war. At the battle of Pydna, in 168, Perseus was defeated by Aemilius Paullus and Macedon was broken into four independent districts. Perseus was taken to Rome to march in Paullus' triumph, and he died in prison.

The War against King Antiochus III the Great of Syria (191-190BC)

The Syrian War happened between the Second and Third Macedonian Wars. Antiochus III the Great was the king of Syria. In 192BC Hannibal who had fled from Carthage to Syria, together with the Aetolian League, persuaded Antiochus to invade Greece. The Aetolians were dissatisfied with the Roman arrangements in Greece after the Second Macedonian War. So Antiochus invaded Greece in 191BC. However, the Roman army, led by Glabrio, quickly stopped Antiochus' advance at Thermopylae, and he returned to Asia Minor. A naval campaign against Rome, Rhodes and Pergamum followed, but he was again defeated. Finally, he was decisively defeated on land at the battle at Magnesia in 190BC by **Lucius Cornelius Scipio** (brother of Scipio Africanus Maior). The peace treaty of Apamea in 188BC imposed the harshest terms. Antiochus was allowed to keep Syria, but he lost most of Asia Minor. **Lucius Cornelius Scipio** was awarded a triumph and the cognomen **Asiagenes**.

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Rome versus The Achaean League: 147-146BC

The Achaean League was a group of city states occupying the Peloponnese in southern Greece. During the Third Macedonian War, the Achaean League had attempted to ally themselves with the Macedonians. The Romans punished them in 168BC by taking several hostages to ensure good behaviour. In 150BC many of the prisoners were allowed to return home where many of them began to inflame anti-Roman feelings. Then, in 147BC, the Roman ambassador at Corinth was killed and the Romans declared war in 146BC. The Romans under Lucius Mummius defeated the Achaeans at the Battle of Corinth. They then burned Corinth, the main city of the Achaean League, to the ground, sold its inhabitants into slavery and dissolved the Achaean League. It was a warning to any other eastern city which was thinking of revolt. This was the end of Greek and Macedonian independence; in 146BC the Romans amalgamated the Greek peninsula and Macedon into a single Roman province calling it Achaea.

7. Rome Conquers the West: The Spanish Wars

The Romans were brought to Spain by their wars with Carthaginians. After the Second Punic War they stayed for two reasons: (i) to prevent a renewal of Carthaginian influence in Spain and (ii) to exploit the wealth of Spain particularly in iron and other minerals. At this stage, they controlled an eastern coastal area of Spain called Hispania Citerior (nearer Spain – i.e. nearer to Italy) and the south-eastern coastal district, called Hispania Ulterior (further Spain). However, bad administration by the Romans and the greed of the Roman governors led to resistance from the Spanish.

The Celtiberians: Celtiberia is in north central Spain. From 181BC-179BC, the Celtiberians waged a constant guerrilla campaign until they were eventually defeated by Tiberius Sempronius Gracchus. He proved himself popular among the Spanish because of his justice and kindness. After their defeat, many of the Celtiberians enlisted in the Roman army, while others were persuaded to settle in new lands as colonists.

However, in 143BC, the Celtiberians renewed their struggle against the Romans, making their last stand at Numantia in northern Spain. The city held out against Rome for ten years, but in 133BC it was captured and destroyed after almost the entire garrison had been killed. The Roman commander was **Scipio Africanus Minor** who had also destroyed Carthage.



The Lusitanians: Lusitania is in modern Portugal. In 194BC the Lusitanians first revolted. In 152 BC they made a peace agreement with the Romans, after they conquered their biggest city Oxthraeae. However, as soon as the Romans withdrew, the Lusitanians broke the terms of the treaty by attacking other Spanish tribes that had helped the Romans attack them. Eventually, in 151BC they negotiated another peace treaty with the Romans. This time the Romans broke the treaty. They massacred the Lusitanians. Still they continued their rebellion. **Viriathus** soon emerged as their leader. He was a brilliant Lusitanian general and for ten years resisted all the forces of Rome. In 140BC he even forced the surrender of 20,000 Romans. However, in 139BC Rome arranged his assassination at the hands of his own servants. The Lusitanians then made peace with the Romans. Viriathus is still considered a national hero in Portugal.

Sample Short Past Paper Question: Viriathus

Who was Viriathus and how did he cause trouble for the Romans?

8. LIFE of Scipio Africanus Minor (c.185-129BC)



Publius Cornelius Scipio Aemilianus Africanus Minor (185-129BC) was the adopted son of the son of **Scipio Africanus Maior** (Scipio Africanus Maior was his grandfather.)

In 168 he fought under Paullus at **Pydna**, the final battle in Rome's war against King Antiochus III the Great of Syria (191-190BC).

He volunteered for service in **Spain** in 151 and distinguished himself as a military tribune in 149/8.

Although too young and not of sufficient rank, he was elected consul for 147, and he destroyed **Carthage** in 146, bringing the Punic Wars to an end.

He was a censor in 142.

In 134 he was consul for the second time and entrusted with the war against the Celtiberians in **Numantia** in Spain. The Celtiberians had already held out against the Romans for 10 years, but Scipio captured and destroyed it in 133BC. Almost the entire garrison was killed.

On his return to Rome he opposed the Gracchi's land commission and as a result he lost much popularity. When found dead in unexplained circumstances, he was thought to have been murdered; high among the suspects was his wife who was a sister of Tiberius and Gaius Gracchus.

Scipio Africanus Minor was fond of both traditional Roman ways and Greek culture. The intellectual Polybius was a close friend of him, and Cicero to make him a central character in several of his dialogues.

9. POLITICAL LIFE IN ROME

1. Patricians

Roman citizens were divided into two classes. The first class or *order* was the patricians. They were believed to be descended from the heads (or *patres*) of the richest families in early Rome. They were the leading citizens in Rome, and traditionally the Senate was chosen from them.

2. Plebeians

The second class or *order* was called the plebeians. Everyone who wasn't classed as a patrician was a plebeian. Many plebeians had no land or skills and were extremely poor. Others were shopkeepers or craft workers.

3. Equites

The equites were plebeians who were descended from the first Roman cavalry. Most of them were bankers or merchants. In the early days of the Roman Empire they concentrated on (1) buying up land from the small farmers to make *latifundia*, (2) the right to collect taxes in the new provinces. This meant that they grew very rich very quickly. They were seen as the new nobility.

4. Latifundia

Latifundia were large estates made up of lots of small farms. When farmers returned home from war after many years at war, they could not afford to repair and restock their land. So they sold their small farms cheaply to the Equites. These equites and other landowners then combined the small farms into large estates called *latifundia*. They affected Roman society in several ways: (1) overcrowding in Rome, (2) food shortages in Rome which meant that the state had to provide free corn, (3) unemployment in Rome which meant there were a lot of people discontented people ever ready to gather into a mob.

5. Cursus honorum

The *cursus honorum* was the political career ladder at Rome. Political offices had to be held in a particular sequence, although the order was often ignored (e.g. by Pompey.) The offices included, quaestor, aedile, tribune, praetor and consul.

6. Quaestor

A quaestor was responsible for financial affairs. He also looked after state documents. He was the pay master of the Roman army. They numbered twenty.

7. Aedile

Aediles were responsible for markets, streets, water supply and public games. They numbered four.

8. Tribunus plebis

A *tribunus plebis*, translated as tribune of the people, was one of ten representatives of the plebs. His role was to defend the lives and the property of the people.

9. Praetor

A praetor was in charge of the law-courts and administered justice. He was a judge.

10. Consuls

Two consuls were elected each year. Their power (*imperium*) was a general authority over all things civic and military.

11. Censor

Censors were appointed from previous consuls. The role of the censor was to remove unworthy members from the Senate, and to enrol new ones. They were also responsible for making the state's contracts for public works and tax collection.

12. Dictator

A dictator was appointed by the consuls during times of great danger to the state. He was usually appointed for up to six months. He had absolute power over everybody else. He could also nominate his own assistant called the *magister equitum* (master of the cavalry).

13. Fasces

The fasces were a bundle of rods with an axe. They symbolized a politician's authority.

14. Lictor

A lictor accompanied a magistrate (i.e. a politician announcing his approach and clearing a path in front of him). Each lictor carried a fasces on his left shoulder.

15. Candidatus

A person standing for public office was called a *candidatus* because he wore a white robe (*candidus* is the Latin for white).

10. Rome in 133BC: **The Effects of the Expansion of the Empire**

By 133BC The Roman Empire had expanded to include the following provinces: Sicily, Corsica and Sardinia, Hispania Citerior and Hispania Ulterior, Cisalpine Gaul, Achaea and Macedonia and Africa. These overseas conquests had a dramatic effect on life in Rome.

In the early days of the Roman Empire, small farmers used to leave their land temporarily to fight during wartime. However, the expansion of the empire meant that Rome was constantly at war, which required farmers to be increasingly away from their farms for longer and longer periods of time. Thus farms were all the time more neglected and often ruined while the farmers were away fighting. This led to several important consequences:

1. When the farmers finally returned home they could not afford to repair and restock their land. So they sold their small farms cheaply to the newly rich upper classes. These were men who often belonged to a class of people called the Equites.
2. This made the Equites increasingly rich. They were known as the new nobility.
3. The equites and other landowners then combined the small farms into large estates called *latifundia*.
4. These *latifundia* were worked by war captives who had been imported as slaves. These slaves were fed, clothed and sheltered only enough to keep them alive and capable of working.
5. With no employment on the land the small farmers were forced to go to Rome. This caused a lot of problems for Rome, including (a) overcrowding, (b) food shortages and (c) unemployment. (d) Even when there was food available, this new urban proletariat had no work, so they could not buy food. This meant that the state had to provide subsidised or free corn. By the time of Julius Caesar, 320,000 citizens were getting free corn. (e) This large amount of unemployed, discontented people formed an unreliable, easily incensed underclass. They were ever ready to gather into a mob, and willing to sell their votes to the wealthy in return for bribes.
6. The sale of small farms also affected the Roman army. There was a law in Rome, which stated that a Roman citizen soldier had to own a certain amount of land to be able to fight in the army. Since so many Roman citizens had now sold their land, the amount of citizens eligible for military service was rapidly decreasing.

11. Social Change in Rome:

The Patricians, the Plebs, and the Equites

Patricians: Roman citizens were divided into two classes. The first class or *order* was the patricians. They were believed to be descended from the heads (or *patres*) of the richest families in early Rome. They were the leading citizens in Rome, and traditionally the Senate was chosen from them. As senators these men were not allowed to trade, and were thus a landed class. Strictly speaking the Senate was only an advisory body, but at the same time it was accepted as being in legitimate control of the Republic. Magistrates were expected to consult them. It negotiated with foreign embassies, assigned provinces to magistrates, prolonged commands, and voted funds. It was also the focus of communication between gods and men. They liked to see their order as hereditary, but new men were also included. The first historically recorded membership of the Senate was 300. Sulla increased this to 600, and Caesar to 900, while Augustus returned it to 600.

Plebeians: The second class or *order* was called the plebeians. Everyone who wasn't classed as a patrician was a plebeian. Many plebeians had no land or skills and were extremely poor. Others were shopkeepers or craft workers. In the early days of the Roman Republic, the plebeians were discontent for several reasons. They wanted more land, less tax, protection from oppression by patrician magistrates. They also wanted to hold public office, and the law to be written down. Over time conditions improved for them. By 133BC the two orders (patricians and plebeians) were essentially equal in political power, although the Senate still held the upper hand. However, living conditions at this time were harsh for many plebeians. There were now many more of them because of the influx of small farmers into Rome. This had led to overcrowding, food shortages and unemployment.

Equites: The equites were plebeians who were descended from the first Roman cavalry. Most of them were bankers or merchants. In the early days of the Roman Empire they began to concentrate on buying up land from the small farmers to make latifundia. They also bought up the right to collect taxes in the newly established provinces. This meant that they grew very rich very quickly, and by 133BC their money had helped them to become a prominent political force. They were seen as the new nobility.

12. LIFE OF Tiberius Gracchus



Tiberius Gracchus (163-133BC) was a Roman reformer. His father was Tiberius Sempronius Gracchus who had defeated the Celtiberians in Spain in 179 BC. His father had been very popular with the Spanish because of his justice and kindness. His mother was Cornelia; she was a forceful character who gave Tiberius – and his brother Gaius – a liberal Greek-orientated education.

Tiberius served in the third Punic war, destroying Carthage under the leadership of his brother-in-law Scipio Africanus Minor. He also served as a quaestor in Spain in 137BC, where, using his father's connections, he successfully negotiated a peace treaty with the Celtiberians. By doing so he saved the army of Mancius from total destruction. The treaty was later disowned by the Senate on the motion of Scipio. Tiberius was thus disgraced in the eyes of the Senate, and his political future seemed doomed.

However, Tiberius reacted by joining a political group opposed to Scipio, and standing as a Tribune Plebis. He was elected, and in 133BC he embarked on radical measures to solve Rome's land problems. Tiberius had seen the effects of the land problems firsthand. On his way home from Spain, he had been concerned about the vast *latifundia* and huge numbers of slaves that he saw. Then at Rome he noticed the plight of the unemployed urban mob. He was convinced that this situation was not in Rome's best interests. (See your other handout on the problems with the land. You need to be able to explain these problems in detail.)

Tiberius proposed that all illegally held land above 300 acres should be redistributed to the poor. Instead of first going to the Senate, he took his bill straight to the people. This ignoring of the Senate was legal but against custom. Tiberius had decided to bypass it because the Senators were all large landowners, who were certainly not going to pass a law that meant they would lose land. If his bill was to have a chance of being passed, he had to bring it directly to the people. The Senate reacted by getting another tribune, Octavian, to repeatedly veto the bill. In the end, Tiberius had Octavius removed from office. The bill was passed.

A land commission was then appointed initially comprising of Tiberius, his father-in-law Appius Claudius Pulcher, and his younger brother Gaius. They set about enacting Tiberius' law.

When Attalus III of Pergamum died naming the Roman people as his heir, Tiberius then had the people vote the new revenues to his land commission. Again, Tiberius was breaking with tradition, as normally the Senate dealt with foreign affairs.

Senatorial opposition came to a head when Tiberius stood to be re-elected to the tribunate in 132BC. A mob of senators caught Gracchus by surprise, and the tribune and many of his followers were killed on the Capitol. The land commission, however, continued until 129BC.

The Senate had succeeded in suppressing Tiberius but at the cost of starting a long chain of civil bloodshed. They reacted not so much against Tiberius or against his reforms but against his methods of going directly to the people, whipping them up into a frenzy and making them aware of their political power.

13.LIFE OF Gaius Gracchus



Gaius Gracchus (154-121BC) was a Roman reformer. He was the younger brother of the Roman reformer Tiberius Gracchus (163-133BC). His father was Tiberius Sempronius Gracchus who had defeated the Celtiberians in Spain in 179 BC. His father had been very popular with the Spanish because of his justice and kindness. His mother was Cornelia; she was a forceful character who gave both her sons a liberal Greek-orientated education.

Gaius served under his brother-in-law Scipio Africanus Minor at Numantia in Spain in 134BC.

Gaius followed his brother's example in trying to solve Rome's land problems. Like Tiberius he was concerned about the vast *latifundia* and all the problems that the *latifundia* caused. (See your handout on *Effects of Expansion* about the problems with the land. You need to be able to explain these problems here.)

Gaius was made a member of his brother's land commission in 133BC. The job of the land commission was to enact Tiberius' law, namely that all illegally held land above 300 acres should be redistributed to the poor. Gaius continued this work until his death.

Gaius was elected as a tribune (*Tribunis Plebis*) in both 123 and 122BC. As tribune, he first passed some laws designed to avenge his brother. He then undertook a series of radical reforms. He proposed (1) the founding of colonies to resettle the poor, (2) the provision of state-subsidized grain for citizens in Rome, and (3) the reorganization of the extortion court; he proposed to replace senators with equites.

In 122, he proposed to give the vote to the Italians. However, his popularity had been weakened by M. Livius Drusus who had himself proposed further colonies. As a result, Gaius' proposal for the Italians failed, and he also failed to get re-elected in 121BC. His laws then came under attack and Gaius turned to violence. The Senate then passed the first *senatus consultum ultimum* which called on the consuls to save the state. And so the consul Opimus had Gaius killed, together with many of his supporters.

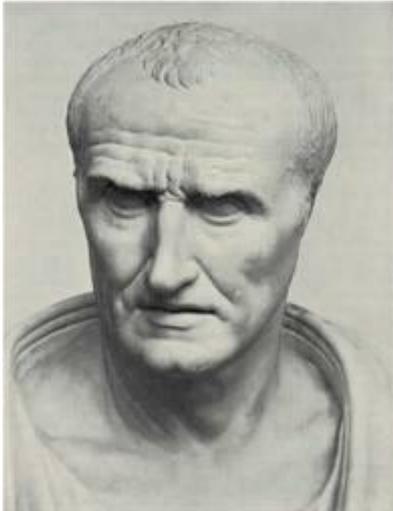
Sample Short Past Paper Questions: The Gracchi

1. What were the *latifundia* and how did they affect Roman society?
2. What caused Tiberius Gracchus to introduce his land / agricultural reforms?
3. What major land reform did Tiberius Gracchus propose?
4. Name two of the land reforms of Tiberius Gracchus.
5. What happened to Tiberius Gracchus when he attempted to introduce land reform?
6. Mention two major reforms proposed by Caius Gracchus.
7. Why did Caius Gracchus introduce the Corn Dole?

Sample Long Past Paper Questions: The Gracchi

8. The Gracchi brothers tried to improve the conditions of the poor. Write a short account of the career of **one** of the brothers.
9. Ten years after his brother's death, **Gaius Gracchus** followed in his political footsteps and also died violently. Describe the main events of his career.
10. Imagine you are Gaius Gracchus. Write a *laudatio funebris* (funeral speech) for your murdered brother **Tiberius Gracchus** in which you praise the main achievements of his career.

14. The Life of Marius including 15. Jugurtha



Gaius Marius (157-86BC) was a Roman politician. He was a member of the Equestrian class (*equites*) and therefore a plebeian. He was the first person in his family to enter the Senate; he was therefore a *novus homo* or a 'new man'. He was also a *popularis*. The *Populares* were a Roman political group who worked through and behalf of the people and against the *Optimates*. The *Populares* were usually from the Roman nobility. The *Optimates* were another Roman political group who were members of the Senate opposed to the actions of the *Populares*. They were a conservative group who sought to enhance the authority of the Senate over the people.

1. Marius and the *cursus honorum*

Marius served under **Scipio Africanus Minor** at **Numantia** in 133BC. As a **quaestor** in 123BC, Marius was responsible for financial affairs. Marius was elected as **tribune** in 119. As a tribune, Marius represented the people. However, he displeased the Optimates by trying to pass a law ensuring secrecy of voting. Therefore, he failed to be elected as an **aedile** in 118. An aedile was responsible for markets, streets, and public games. Marius became **praetor** in 115. As **praetor** he was responsible for justice. After this he became a **proconsul** in the Roman province of **Spain**. This meant that he was governor of Spain.

2. The war against Jugurtha

Like Marius, Jugurtha had served under Scipio Africanus Minor at Numantia in 133BC. Jugurtha had then taken control of Numidia. Numidia was located to the south and west of Carthage in North Africa. He probably had the help of some powerful Roman citizens to do this. However, in doing so he killed some Italian residents. Rome had already sent a Roman general against Jugurtha, called Bestia, but he had been bribed. Jugurtha was then called to Rome to testify against the corrupt Roman senators. However, in the end he wasn't called to testify and he left Rome calling it 'a city for sale'.

Another Roman army was sent out, but its general was also bribed. Then Metellus Numidicus took over the war in 109. He was an honest man; he chose Marius as his senior legate. Marius wanted instead to run for the consulship, but Metellus Numidicus, who was consul at the time, would not allow him. Metellus Numidicus failed to defeat Jugurtha. Meanwhile Marius finally became consul in 107. At last, the Romans gained the upper hand in the war. This was mainly due

to a law Marius introduced regarding army qualification: Marius abolished minimum property qualification. This meant that all the dispossessed farmers who had come to Rome could now be soldiers. There were no manpower problems now, and Rome was close to defeating Jugurtha.

However, Marius couldn't catch Jugurtha, because he didn't know the country like Jugurtha did. In the end, it was not Marius who secured Jugurtha's capture. It was his quaestor; a man called Sulla who would later become a Roman dictator. Sulla managed to get Jugurtha to surrender by bribing Jugurtha's ally, a man called Bocchus. He was finally captured and executed in Rome in 104. Later Sulla used to wear a signet ring which depicted the surrender of Jugurtha to him, and there were also statues on Capitol Hill depicting the same scene. Both used to annoy Marius greatly. Sulla was a patrician, who, even as a quaestor looked down on the plebeian Marius although he was consul. The war against Jugurtha was important because:

- (1) it saw the emergence of two outstanding men – Marius and Sulla who would dominate Roman politics for the next 24 years.
- (2) it showed the corruption and military incompetence of some members of the Senate.
- (3) Cavalry was used on a large scale in this war.

3. Marius' Army Reforms

It was about now that Marius further reformed the **army**. The following are his five reforms:

- (1) abolished the minimum land qualification.
- (2) made the army professional. Men signed up for 20 years and were paid.
- (3) changed the system of fighting. The old system of having 3 long lines was replaced with a fighting unit called a cohort; it contained 500 men.
- (4) The army was properly trained.
- (5) The soldiers carried their weapons and were known as Marius' mules.

4. The Cimbri and Teutones

Marius was then elected as consul every year from 104 to 101. Usually a politician could only be a consul once, but the threat of an invasion by the German tribes, the Cimbri and Teutones, meant that Marius was elected again and again. Overpopulation had driven the two tribes to migrate. They numbered about 300,000. They had already beaten the Romans several times in 113, 109 and 105 at Arausio in Gaul, where the losses were as great as Cannae. They had then gradually moved towards Spain, but the Celtiberians threw them out. They then began to move towards Italy. Marius finally defeated the Teutones at Aqua Sextiae in 102. He then destroyed the Cimbri in 101BC at Vercallae. Sulla also served under Marius in these wars. Marius returned to Rome a hero and had a magnificent triumph.

5. Land for Marius' Veterans: Saturninus and Metellus Numidius

Marius became consul again in 100. He needed land for his army veterans. The tribune Saturninus had voted lands for his army veterans before, and he now did this again. Metellus Numidicus objected to the measure, but his objection amounted to nothing, and to Marius' delight he was exiled as a result. Saturninus then tried to get his own independent power, but Marius turned against him, and forcibly suppressed him and his supporters by using his army veterans. Meanwhile, Marius wouldn't allow Metellus Numidicus to return from exile, but this displeased his supporters in the Senate. Eventually, Metellus was recalled, and an unhappy Marius left Rome immediately. However, when he was elected as an augur he returned to Rome.

6. Livius Drusus

Marius now tried to reaffirm his links with his Equestrian friends (equites). He did this by opposing Livius Drusus. He was a tribune who was attempting to solve several of Rome's problems, by bringing about a compromise between the optimates, the populares and the Italians. He proposed: (1) a reform of the law courts, probably by enrolling 300 Equestrians in the Senate and drawing juries from this larger amount of people, (2) land distributions and most importantly (3) the extension of Roman citizenship to all Italians. However, a compromise was not reached. The optimates many of whom were wealthy land-owners opposed the land-distribution. The populares, who worked on behalf of the people (which included the equestrians), opposed the extension of Roman citizenship to all Italians because the people did not wish to share their privileges. Some Italians also opposed the extension of Roman citizenship because it meant some of them would lose their land in exchange for this privilege. Drusus' legislation failed and at the end of the year he was assassinated. This hastened the start of the **Social War**.

7. The Social War

The **Social War** (91-87BC) was a war between Rome and her Italian allies. By the time of Marius, Rome's Italian allies, called Socii were extremely discontent. They were made up of eight tribes, including the Marsi, Samnites and Apulians. They were unhappy for two main reasons: (1) Rome's manpower problems had put an increased burden on them. (2) They wanted to be Roman citizens so that they could vote and benefit from the monetary gains of the empire. In the beginning, the allies were successful. The general Silo of the Marsi was very successful against the Romans. However, later Marius was successful on the northern front of the war, but when he wasn't offered the supreme command, he decided to retire. Sulla too was impressive in this war; he drove the Samnites out of Campania and captured their base, Bovianum. In the end, the allies were defeated and Rome won the war mainly by giving citizenship to most of the Italians.

8. Marius and Sulla: Civil War in Rome

Meanwhile a war was imminent with Mithridates VI. He was king of Pontus in Asia Minor. Marius hoped to have the command against him, and tried to win the consulship for 88, but Sulla won both the consulship and therefore the command. However, the tribune Sulpicius Rufus had the command transferred to Marius. This started a civil war in Rome. Sulla responded by taking the unprecedented step of persuading his six legions to march on Rome. He took control by violence before departing to fight Mithridates VI. Marius was forced to flee finding safety at Cercina, a colony of his veterans off Africa.

Then in 87, the new consul, Cinna, opposed Sulla's actions of the previous year, but he was driven out of Rome. Marius joined together with him, and they marched on Rome and captured it in late 87. Both were proclaimed consuls for 86 and Marius was to replace Sulla in the east. He now took terrible vengeance on his enemies, but his health gave out and he died before taking up his command.

Sample Short Past Paper Questions: Jugurtha

1. Who was Jugurtha and how did he come into conflict with the Romans?
2. Who was Bocchus? How was he involved in the war with Jugurtha?
3. How was Jugurtha eventually captured by the Romans?
4. Who was Jugurtha and how did he cause trouble for the Romans?

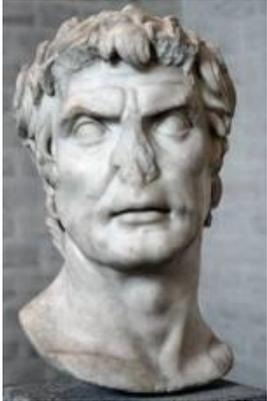
Sample Short Past Paper Questions: Marius

1. Who were 'Marius's mules'? How did they get this name?
2. Describe two reforms which Marius made in the Roman army.
3. Who were the Cimbri and the Teutones? What happened to them?
4. What was the importance of the battles of Aquae Sextiae and Vercellae?
5. What caused the Italian or Social War in 90 B.C.?
6. Who was Livius Drusus? Why was he murdered in 91 BC?

Sample Long Past Paper Questions: Marius

7. Marius was consul seven times. This was a remarkable achievement for a *novus homo* in Rome. Describe the main stages of his career up to his death in 86 BC.
8. Imagine you are the son of Marius. Your father has just died in his seventies after being made consul for the seventh time. Write a *laudatio funebris* (funeral speech) in which you outline the main achievements of his career.

16. LIFE OF Sulla



Sulla (c.138-78BC) was a Roman dictator. Lucius Cornelius Sulla Felix came from a patrician family.

1. The War against Jugurtha

In the war against Jugurtha, Sulla served under The consul Marius as a quaestor. He managed to get Jugurtha to surrender by bribing Jugurtha's ally, Bocchus, and Jugurtha was finally captured and executed in Rome in 104. Later Sulla used to wear a signet ring which depicted the surrender of Jugurtha to him, and there were also statues on Capitol Hill depicting the same scene. This used to annoy Marius greatly. Sulla, although he was only a quaestor, looked down on the consul Marius, because the latter was a plebeian while he was a patrician.

2. The Cimbri and Teutones

In the war against the Germanic tribes, the Cimbri and the Teutones, Sulla also served under Marius.

3. Praetor and Proconsul

Sulla became praetor in 97, and after that was assigned the Roman province of Cilicia as proconsul. Here he heard a prophecy that would influence the rest of his life, namely that he would attain greatness and die at the height of great fortune. He stayed in Cilicia probably until 92BC.

4. The Social War

In the Social War (91-87BC) Marius had been successful on the northern front of the war, but when he wasn't offered the supreme command, he decided to retire. Sulla took the opportunity to excel. He was very impressive on the southern front, driving the Samnites out of Campania and capturing their base, Bovianum.

5. Marius and Sulla: Civil War in Rome

Following his successes in the Social War Sulla was elected as consul in 88BC, and he therefore won the command against Mithridates VI. Marius was infuriated. He wanted the command against Mithridates. So Marius enlisted the help of a tribune, Sulpicius Rufus, who transferred the command to him. This started a civil war in Rome. Sulla responded by taking the unprecedented step of persuading his six legions to march on Rome. He took control by violence before departing to fight Mithridates. Marius was forced to flee, finding safety at Cercina, a colony of his veterans off Africa.

6. Marius and Cinna

While Sulla was away fighting Mithridates, the new consul of 87, Cinna, opposed Sulla's actions. However, he was driven out of Rome. Marius then joined together with him, and they marched on Rome and captured it in late 87. It is said that Marius' army slaughtered hundreds of senators and they hung up their heads in the forum. Marius and Cinna were then proclaimed consuls for 86. Marius was looking forward to taking over the command from Sulla in the war against Mithridates. However, he died less than three weeks later.

7. The 1st Mithridatic War



Mithridates VI was the king of Pontus in Asia Minor. Since 104 he had been trying to expand his territory into the Roman province of Asia, but the threat of Roman attack had always kept him in check. Then in 90BC, Rome incited King Nicomedes IV of Bithynia (a neighbouring land who had a treaty with Rome) to attack Pontus in the hope of provoking Mithridates into war. Finally, Mithridates retaliated and the **1st Mithridatic War** broke out between Rome and Mithridates.

Mithridates responded to Nicomedes' attack by occupying the Roman province of Asia. Here he **ordered the deaths of 80,000 resident Italians**. He was supported by many towns because Mithridates promised them lighter taxes than those they had to pay to the Romans. Then Mithridates **invaded Greece** where he won over most of the mainland including Athens and Macedonia.

Sulla defeated Mithridates' forces in two battles at (1) **Chaeronea** in 86 and (2) **Orchomenus** in 85. Sulla then pursued Mithridates back to Pontus. By this stage Cinna had sent out a commander with another army to replace him. Sulla was undaunted. He quickly made a settlement with Mithridates in 84, letting him off lightly as Sulla now wanted to return to Rome. He then won over the replacement army.

8. Marching on Rome for the second time

Sulla returned to Italy in 83 with an army of 40,000 men and for the second time he led his army on Rome. A brutal civil war ensued. Sulla was supported by a young **Pompey** and **Crassus** (who were both destined for future greatness). At the battle of **Colline Gate** Sulla utterly defeated his opponents, and captured the city of Rome. Crassus, in particular, distinguished himself at this battle. Sulla then:

- (1) sent Pompey to Africa to deal with any Marian supporters;
- (2) embarked on a massacre of his opponents by means of the **proscription lists** (a list of people who were outlawed and whose killers would be rewarded), and
- (3) was installed as a **dictator** to revise the constitution. His solution was to:
 - (a) increase the powers of the senate, which he doubled in size
 - (b) reduce the tribunes to powerlessness,
 - (c) impose checks on senior magistrates.

His veterans were settled on confiscated land as guarantors of his regime. Then, believing in the old prophecy that he now had not long to live, he gradually gave up power and restored the government, becoming consul in 80 and returning to private status in 79. He retired to Campania, where he died later that year of a long-standing disease.

9. The Characters of Sulla and Marius

In some ways Sulla and Marius were alike. They were both very hard-working, ambitious, cruel and brilliant army commanders. But they were also very different. Most importantly, they were politically very different. While Marius belonged to the populares and fought for the people, Sulla belonged to the optimates and represented the senate. Marius was not a great negotiator (he failed to end the war with Jugurtha), while Sulla was an excellent diplomat (he persuaded the surrender of Jugurtha). Sulla was also very lucky. In his struggle with Marius in 88BC he actually hid undetected in Marius' house for a time. He later took the extra name, Felix meaning lucky. He loved good food and wine and partying. His tombstone recorded that he had never forgotten the kindness of a friend or forgiven the injury of an enemy.

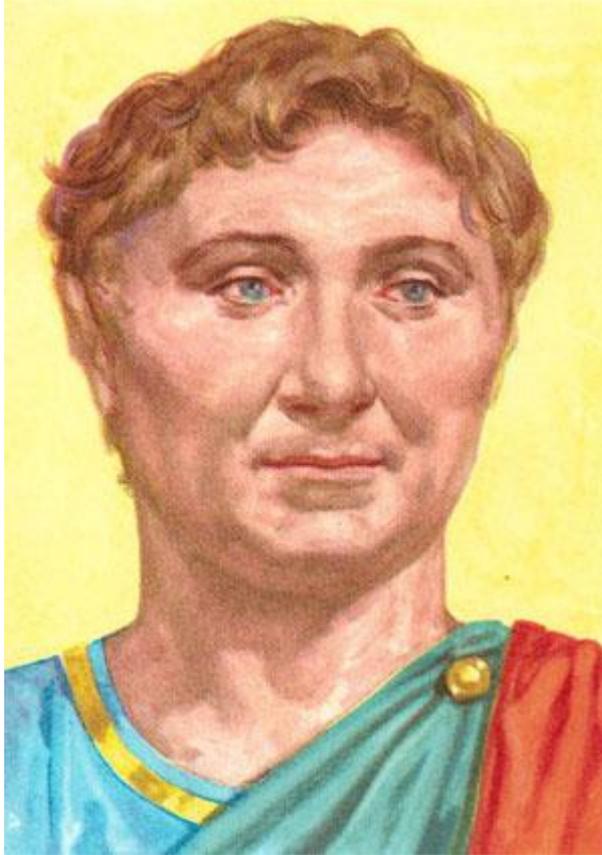
Sample Short Past Paper Questions: Sulla

1. How did Sulla first win recognition as a military leader?
2. What was the significance of Sulla's march on Rome in 88 BC?
3. What happened at the battle of the Colline Gate in 82 BC?
4. Name two of Sulla's reforms.
5. Who introduced the *leges Corneliae*? Describe one of his main purposes

Sample Long Past Paper Questions: Sulla

Imagine you are Sulla and you have just resigned the dictatorship. Write a letter to the Senate describing all that you have done for Rome.

17. LIFE OF Pompey



1. Pompey helps Sulla – 83BC

Pompey was a Roman military leader. Gnaeus Pompeius Magnus helped Sulla in 83BC with his private army of three legions raised from his own land. Then after exterminating Sulla's enemies in Sicily and Africa, he used the threat of his legions to extort a triumph from Sulla (81BC). Pompey should not have had a triumph as this was normally an honour for praetors and consuls. It was then that Pompey took the cognomen *Magnus* in imitation of Alexander the Great.

2. Pompey versus Lepidus – 77BC

Pompey's unconventional career continued when the Senate gave him a special command against Lepidus. Lepidus had become rich on the Sullan proscriptions, but in 78BC he became consul on an anti-Sullan platform. He was sent to deal with a revolt of dispossessed farmers in Etruria, but he ended up siding with the rebels. Then as proconsul in Cisalpine Gaul he increased his army and marched on Rome. He was repelled by Catulus at the Milvian Bridge and defeated by Pompey in Etruria.

3. Pompey versus Sertorius – 72BC

Then as the head of a victorious army Pompey persuaded the Senate to send him as proconsul against Sertorius. Sertorius, who had been a supporter of Marius, had been governor of Spain, but after Sulla's victory he had been driven out. However, he returned to Spain and organized a revolt, as well as providing a base for supporters of Marius and Lepidus. In fact, he created an alternative Senate and Sertorius always claimed to represent the legitimate Roman government. Sertorius kept defeating the Romans including Pompey. However, in 72BC he was murdered by one of his lieutenants, Peperna, who then took over the army. Peperna was no match for Pompey and was soon defeated in 72BC.

4. Pompey and Crassus versus Spartacus – 71BC



Spartacus was a Roman slave. He was an escaped gladiator who in 73BC led a slave revolt which spread through southern Italy and ultimately attracted 90,000 slaves. They overran Italy for three years, and would have invaded Sicily, if their pirate transports had not failed them. Spartacus was finally defeated and killed in Lucania in 71BC by Crassus, who subsequently crucified any rebels he captured. However, Pompey stole the credit for

finishing the war. On his return from Spain (and defeat of Peperna), he intercepted and killed the final 5,000 rebels who had escaped Crassus. He was rewarded with a second triumph. Crassus was deeply offended.

5. Pompey as Consul – 70BC

In 70BC Pompey and Crassus were reconciled and they both became the consuls for that year. In doing this, Pompey was again flouting the rules of the Cursus Honorum, since he was under age, had held no previous magistracy, and was not even a member of the Senate. As consul with Crassus he modified Sulla's constitution. He:

- a) restored full rights to the tribunes.
- b) reformed the jury courts, dividing the juries equally between senators and equites.
- c) removed supporters of Sulla from the Senate.

6. Pompey versus the Pirates – 67BC

Pompey's next opportunity came with special commands against the pirates in 67. Piracy was widespread throughout the Mediterranean in the ancient world and a constant menace to travel and trade. The pirates became a particular danger to Rome when they began to attack the Italian coast, because they were endangering the Roman corn supply. The absence of a standing fleet, at the ready to attack, meant that Rome found it difficult to overcome them. The **Lex Gabinia** gave Pompey the command against the pirates for three years; it covered the whole of the Mediterranean, and gave him unprecedented powers. However, Pompey's campaign was swift. He successfully eliminated the pirates in just three months.

7. Pompey versus Mithridates – 66BC

In the **1st Mithridatic War** Sulla had defeated Mithridates' forces in 85BC. Sulla then pursued Mithridates back to Pontus where he made a settlement with him before he returned to Rome.

The **2nd Mithridatic War** in 81 was a minor matter in which Mithridates repelled incursions by Sulla's lieutenant called Murena.

The **3rd Mithridatic War** was more serious. Nicomedes IV of Bithynia died and bequeathed his kingdom to Rome. Mithridates responded by invading Bithynia in 73. He was immediately defeated by the Roman commander **Lucullus** at Cyzicus. Mithridates fled to Armenia where he took refuge with his son-in-law King Tigranes. Lucullus then defeated Mithridates and Tigranes, but mutiny in Lucullus' army made possible Mithridates' return and recovery of Pontus.

Then in 66BC, with the support of **Cicero**, Pompey was given the command against Mithridates under the **Lex Manilia**. Pompey's eastern campaigns against Mithridates were his greatest achievement. Pompey defeated Mithridates immediately. Mithridates fled to his kingdom in the Crimea where he was said to have been planning an ambitious invasion of Italy by land, but when his son Pharnaces led a revolt against him, he decided to kill himself. He had to ask his bodyguard to run him through with a sword, because he had made himself immune to poison over the years (by taking very small amounts).

After defeating Mithridates, Pompey started on his political settlement of the East.

- a) Bithynia, Pontus and Syria were made Roman provinces.
- b) He set up three 'client-kings', including

(1) Pharnaces, king of Crimea and son of Mithridates

(2) Tigranes, king of Armenia and son-in-law of Mithridates and

(3) Ariobarzanes, king of Cappadocia.

These client-kings acted as a barrier against the Parthian Empire, since it was necessary to travel through these lands first before a hostile army could reach Roman provinces.

- c) He made Rome very wealthy, by organizing a more tax collection.

8. The First Triumvirate (59BC) and the Renewal of the First Triumvirate (56BC)

In 62 BC Pompey returned from the east. He disbanded his army, and had a third triumph. He made two requests: (1) land for his veterans and (2) approval of his political settlement of the East. However, Pompey's immense fame and connections with the eastern provinces worried the Senate and they refused his requests. His efforts were blocked until **Caesar** succeeded in reconciling Pompey with Crassus. In 59 the three men formed a coalition known as the **First Triumvirate**. To cement their alliance, Pompey married Caesar's daughter Lulia.

With Caesar as consul, Pompey's requests were finally granted. However, Pompey's popularity lessened, due to Caesar's victories in Gaul. However, in 56 his coalition with Crassus and Caesar was renewed at Luca. This is known as the **Second Triumvirate**. Each member of the triumvirate benefited:

- a) Pompey now became consul, together with Crassus, in 55. He also received both Spanish provinces for five years (which he governed through legates, preferring to stay in the suburbs of Rome).
- b) Caesar's command in Gaul was extended for another five years.
- c) Crassus received the province of Syria.

9. Pompey versus Caesar – 48BC

However, the coalition did not last. After Julia's death in 54 Pompey declined a further marriage alliance with Caesar. This, and the death of Crassus in 53, increased the tension between him and Caesar. In 52, Pompey was appointed sole consul. His command was extended for another five years. This disrupted the balance of power between him and Caesar, because it meant that Pompey would still have his army after Caesar was due to give up his. So Caesar demanded that either he and Pompey give up their commands at the same time, or that he should be allowed to stand for the consulship while absent in Gaul. He asked for this so that he might return to Rome as consul and thus hold on to his army and be as strong as Pompey. The Senate rejected Caesar's proposal, and the two Caesarean tribunes were forced to flee Rome. Caesar decided to march on Rome.

By this stage, the Senate had increasingly realized that Pompey was their best hope against Caesar. In 49BC, Pompey, as the commander of the government forces, had transported his army to Greece and spent the year mobilizing in Macedonia. He met Caesar in 48 with a powerful force, and was at first successful. However, Pompey was heavily defeated by Caesar at the battle of Pharsalus. He fled to Egypt, but was stabbed to death as he landed.

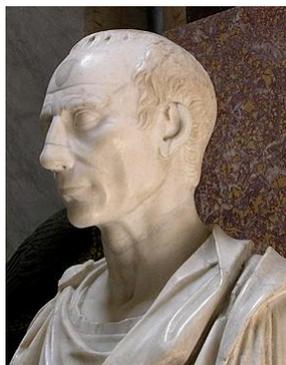
Sample Short Past Paper Questions: Pompey

1. Who was Sertorius and how did he cause trouble for the Romans?
2. What powers did Pompey gain from the *Lex Gabinia* and for what purpose?
3. Who was Spartacus and how did he threaten Rome?
4. Who was Mithridates? How did he come into conflict with the Romans?
5. What powers did Pompey obtain through the *Lex Manilia* and for what purpose?
6. Why did Pompey flee to Egypt? What happened to him there?
7. What were two important achievements of Pompey the Great?

Sample Long Past Paper Question: Pompey

8. **Pompey** was given the title **Magnus (the Great)** by the Romans. Write an account of the main stages in his career. Do you think he deserved to be called "the Great"?

18. LIFE OF Caesar



1. Caesar's family

Gaius Julius Caesar was born in 100BC, the son of Aurelia and the praetor Gaius Julius Caesar. His family had noble, patrician roots, although they were neither rich nor influential at this time. His aunt Julia was the wife of Gaius Marius who was a Popularis.

He married Cornelia who was the daughter of Lucius Cinna, a prominent Popularis. They had one daughter, Julia. When Sulla, an Optimate, marched on Rome and established himself as a dictator, he ordered Caesar, a Popularis, to divorce his wife. Caesar refused and Sulla put him on his proscription lists. Caesar went into hiding until his influential friends and relatives eventually got him a pardon.

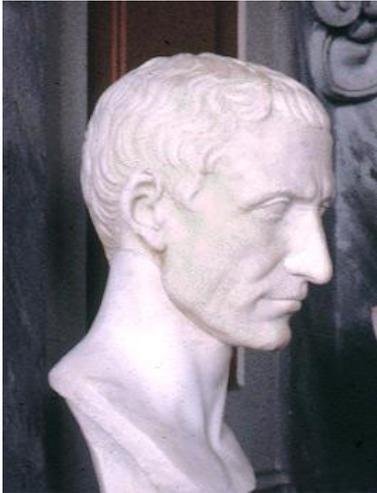
2. The next decade: Greece, Asia and Rome

Caesar spent most of the next decade in Asia and Greece, studying and winning military distinction.

- In 79BC, Caesar fought against the town of Mytilene in Greece. The Romans destroyed Mytilene because they were supporting Mithridates VI. In this battle Caesar was awarded the second highest military honour, **corona civica** (civic crown made of oak leaves); it was a reward for saving the life or lives of citizens in battle.
- Around the same time, he was also successful in persuading **Nicomedes IV**, king of Bithynia, to provide Rome with a **fleet of ships**.
- In 75 BC, Caesar was kidnapped by Cilician **pirates** while sailing to Greece for further study, and held for ransom. When informed that they intended to ask for 20 talents, he is supposed to have insisted that he was worth at least 50. He maintained a friendly relationship with the pirates while the money was being raised, but at the same time he warned them that he would track them down and have them crucified after he was released. He did just that, but it is said that he first cut their throats to lessen their suffering because they had treated him well.

However, Caesar did also spend time at Rome during this decade. After Sulla died in 78 he returned to Rome and began his career as an orator. Throughout his life Caesar was known as an eloquent speaker. An example of two important speeches he made were at the funeral of his aunt Julia and of his wife Cornelia in 69BC. In both these speeches, Caesar emphasized his connections with Marius and the ancient nobility of his family, descended from the first kings on his mother's side and from the gods on his father's.

3. Caesar and the Cursus Honorum



- In 68/67 BC, Caesar was elected **quaestor** and obtained a seat in the Senate. He married Pompeia who was a granddaughter of Sulla. Caesar supported Pompey and helped him get the command against the pirates and the command against Mithridates VI.
- In 65, Caesar was elected **aedile**. He spent lavishly on the games to win popular support. Crassus lent him money so that he would be able to do this.
- In 63, Caesar was elected **pontifex maximus** (chief priest).

(This position was not part of the cursus honorum, but a religious post).

- In 62, he was elected **praetor**. He divorced Pompeia because of her involvement in a scandal with another man. Caesar is reported to have said, "The wife of Caesar must be above suspicion," suggesting that he was so exceptional that anyone associated with him had to be free of any hint of scandal.
- In 61, he was sent to the province of Further Spain as **propraetor**.

4. Caesar and the First Triumvirate – 59BC

In 60BC Caesar returned from Spain and joined with Pompey and Crassus in a coalition called by modern historians "The First Triumvirate" and by his enemies at the time "the three-headed monster." In 62, Pompey had returned victorious from Asia, but had been unable to get the Senate to ratify two requests (1) his arrangements in the East and (2) land for his soldiers. Crassus kept blocking his efforts to have requests granted by the Senate. At this point, Caesar persuaded the two men to work together and promised to support their interests if they helped him get elected to the consulship.

The alliance benefitted each of them.

- Caesar was elected consul in 59 BC and got for himself a five-year term as proconsul of Gaul after his consulship was over.
- Pompey's requests were granted through Caesar's help as consul.
- Crassus was also helped by Caesar. He helped to pass legislation which meant that Crassus did not have to pay back a large amount of money he owed to Rome.

The alliance between Caesar and Pompey was cemented with the marriage of Caesar's daughter Julia to Pompey. Caesar himself married Calpurnia, the daughter of a leading member of the Popular faction.

5. Caesar and Gaul



In 58BC Caesar left Rome for Gaul; he did not return for nine years, in the course of which he would conquer most of what is now central Europe. In doing this Caesar opened up these lands to Mediterranean civilization. It was a decisive act in world history. A million Gauls were killed, and another million enslaved. It was here that Caesar acquired the taste for monarchy. It was also here that Caesar enriched himself, his supporters and his army.

The conquest began legitimately when the Helvetii, a Celtic people from southern Germany attempted to migrate. Caesar stopped their migration and sent them back to Germany. This incident led to his conquest of the whole of Gaul. However, while Caesar's Gallic campaign started legally, much of the rest of it was considered by the Optimates to be illegal. They regarded the conquest as an act of aggression prompted by Caesar's personal ambition.

6. The Renewal of the First Triumvirate

Meanwhile, in 56BC, while the Gallic campaigns were continuing, Caesar met with Pompey and Crassus at Luca to renew their coalition. Again each member of the triumvirate benefitted.

- Pompey became consul again (along with Crassus). He received both Spanish provinces for five years.
- Crassus became consul as well. He received the province of Syria.
- Caesar's command in Gaul was extended until 49 BC.

7. Caesar and Britain

In 55BC, Caesar invaded Britain. It was unsuccessful, and may only have been a reconnaissance expedition. This was the first Roman crossing of the English Channel. In 54BC Caesar again invaded. This time he led a three-month expedition. However, he did not establish a permanent base there. He defeated Cassivellaunus and conquered south-east Britain, but then withdrew.

8. Caesar and Gaul and Vercingetorix



Caesar's brilliant conquest of Gaul was nearly complete by 56, but was delayed until 51 by a series of revolts, culminating in that of **Vercingetorix**. He was a Gallic chief who led a general revolt against Caesar. Using extreme discipline to mould the tribes into a unified army, he avoided battle and employed scorched-earth tactics. This involved destroying anything that might be useful to Caesar while advancing through or withdrawing from an area. He was trapped with 80,000 men in the hillfort of Alesia which Caesar surrounded with siege works. He surrendered to save the army from starvation and was later executed after Caesar's triumph in 44BC. Caesar finally finished his conquest of Gaul in 51 BC. By then he had set up an efficient provincial administration to govern the vast territories and he also published his history, *The Gallic Wars*.

9. Caesar away from Rome

While Caesar was away on his Gallic campaign, he kept up his influence on Roman politics by:

- returning to Cisalpine Gaul (northern Italy) – and therefore closer to Rome – during the winters
- by publishing his slanted campaign records (the *commentarii*).

However, the coalition with Pompey (who remained at Rome) broke down in 54BC for two reasons:

- Crassus had died that year. (He had gone to Syria to take up his command. He was at first successful, but because he had long neglected his military skills, one of the great Parthian families, the Surenas, managed to catch him in a trap when he attacked Parthia; Crassus died trying to escape, and the Parthians captured Rome's legionary eagles.)
- Julia (Caesar's daughter and Pompey's wife) died in childbirth in 54.

The relationship between Caesar and Pompey worsened in 52BC when Pompey was appointed sole consul. His command was extended for another five years. This disrupted the balance of

power between him and Caesar, because it meant that Pompey would still have his army after Caesar was due to give up his. So, Caesar demanded that either he and Pompey give up their commands at the same time, or that he should be allowed to stand for the consulship while absent in Gaul. He asked this for two reasons.

- so that he might return to Rome as consul and thus hold on to his army and be as strong as Pompey;
- so that he could not be prosecuted by the Optimates. (Consuls could not be prosecuted.) The Optimates wanted to prosecute him for two reasons: (1) they viewed his Gallic campaigns as unwarranted and illegal, and (2) they feared the power he had amassed).

The Optimates refused to let him stand for the consulship.

10. Caesar crosses the Rubicon – 49BC



Caesar had tried to maintain his position legally, but in 49BC when he was pushed to the limit he decided to lead his armies across the Rubicon River (the northern border of his province). As he crossed the Rubicon he is said to have said *alea iacta est* (the die is cast), meaning that there was no turning back from his decision; crossing the Rubicon with his army inevitably meant civil war. This phrase is still used today to mean that events have passed beyond a

point of no return. Caesar quickly advanced to Rome, and had himself declared **dictator**. By this stage, Pompey and the Senate had retreated to Brundisium and from there they sailed to the East. They did this because Pompey's legions were in Spain.

Throughout his subsequent campaign, Caesar was known for his mercy. He did not put anyone to death, and he did not confiscate property. He first went with his legions to Spain to prevent Pompey's forces from joining him in the East. On his return he was elected **consul**, thus (relatively) legalizing his position.

By this time, Pompey had established a strong position in Greece. Caesar crossed to Greece in 48. The battle was very uneven in numbers because Caesar did not have enough ships to transport all of his army to Greece. In the final battle, at Pharsalus, it is estimated that Pompey had 46,000 men and Caesar had 21,000. By brilliant generalship, Caesar was victorious. Caesar pardoned all Roman citizens who were captured, including Brutus (who would later kill him), but Pompey escaped, fleeing to Egypt where he was stabbed to death as he landed.

11. Caesar in Egypt, Asia and Africa



Egypt: Caesar followed Pompey to Egypt where on his arrival he was presented with Pompey's head. Caesar was said to have been horrified. He then began a campaign in Egypt, in which he established Cleopatra as a client ruler in alliance with Rome. He also left three legions there in support of her rule. He then left Egypt in 47 BC, travelling through Asia to settle disturbances there.

Asia: One of these disturbances was being caused by Pharnaces II. He was the youngest son of Mithridates VI, and the king of Pontus. While Rome had been distracted with the civil war between Caesar and Pompey, Pharnaces II had taken the opportunity to invade Lesser Armenia. He had already defeated a Roman army who had tried to stop him. However, Caesar defeated him quickly at Zela. In a letter to a friend in Rome, Caesar is said to have famously said of the short war: "Veni, vidi, vici" ("I came, I saw, I conquered").

Africa: Caesar arrived back in Rome in 47 BC. After he settled some problems caused by the mismanagement of Mark Antony, he attempted to sail for Africa to face the Optimates. They had regrouped here under the Roman politician Cato and allied with King Juba of Numidia. However, Caesar's legions mutinied and refused to sail. Then, in a brilliant speech, Caesar brought them around totally, and after some difficult battles decisively defeated the Optimates at **Thapsus**, after which Cato committed suicide rather than be pardoned by Caesar.

12. Caesar back in Rome

The victorious and now unchallenged Caesar arrived back in Rome in 46BC and celebrated four splendid triumphs (over the Gauls, Egyptians, Pharnaces, and Juba). He then sent for Cleopatra and the three year-old Caesarion and established them in a luxurious villa across the Tiber from Rome. He also resettled his veterans abroad without dispossessing others.

Reforms: He made the following reforms:

- resolved the worst of Rome's debt crisis
- reformed the Roman calendar
- regulated the grain dole
- enlarged the Senate to 900

His methods alienated many of the nobles. Holding the position of *dictator*, Caesar governed autocratically, more in the manner of a general than a politician. Although he nominally used the political structure, he often simply announced his decisions to the Senate and had them entered on the record as senatorial decrees without debate or vote.

Triumph for Munda: He also annoyed them when he decided to have a fifth triumph. This was to celebrate his victory over the two sons of Pompey, Gnaeus and Sextus, who had led a revolt against Rome in Spain. Caesar had decisively defeated them at the battle of Munda. (Gnaeus was killed, but Sextus escaped to become, later, the leader of the Mediterranean pirates.) The Senate objected to the triumph because triumphs were usually held for victories over foreign enemies.

Dictator perpetuus: By this time Caesar was virtually appointing all major magistrates. He was also borrowing some of the customs of the ruler cults of the eastern monarchies. For example, he issued coins with his likeness and he allowed his statues, especially in the provinces, to be adorned like the statues of the gods. Furthermore, he had the Senate constantly vote him new honours—the right to wear the laurel wreath and purple and gold toga and sit in a gilded chair at all public functions. Finally in 44BC Caesar was named dictator perpetuus (perpetual dictator).

13. The death of Caesar

At this time Caesar was preparing to lead a military campaign against the Parthians (because they had killed Crassus and taken the legionary eagles). He was due to leave to leave on March 18. Although Caesar was apparently warned of some personal danger, he nevertheless refused a bodyguard. On March 15, known then as the Ides of March, Caesar attended the last meeting of the Senate before his departure. There were sixty conspirators in the Senate against him (some of whom believed he wanted to overthrow the Republic in favour of a tyranny). There were four leaders including **Marcus Junius Brutus**. They came to the meeting with daggers concealed in their togas and struck Caesar at least 23 times as he stood at the base of Pompey's statue. Legend has it that Caesar said, in Greek, to Brutus, 'You, too, my child?' The well-known Latin phrase 'Et tu, Brute?' is often used instead to represent his last words.

Sample Short Past Paper Questions: Julius Caesar

1. Which three men formed the First Triumvirate in 60 BC?
2. What happened to Crassus, the third member of the First Triumvirate?
3. Who was Vercingetorix and what happened to him?
4. Why did Julius Caesar say *alea iacta est* when he crossed the Rubicon in 49 BC?
5. What was the significance of Caesar crossing the Rubicon in 49 BC?
6. In what circumstances did Julius Caesar use the words *veni, vidi, vici*?
7. Describe two reforms introduced by Julius Caesar when he became dictator.
8. What happened on the Ides of March in 44BC?

Sample Long Past Paper Questions: Julius Caesar

9. **Julius Caesar** was one of Rome's greatest generals and politicians. Write an account of the main stages in his career.
10. Write an account of the main stages of **Julius Caesar's** public career and the reasons for his assassination.

19. LIFE OF Cicero

1. Early Career



Marcus Tullius Cicero (106-43BC) was a Roman orator. He was born an equestrian (i.e. a member of the Equites). He was thus a *novus homo* or a 'new man' in Roman politics.

He first established his reputation as an **orator** in political trials, including his defence of an actor called Roscius Gallus in 80BC, and his prosecution of Verres in 70. Verres was a praetor of Sicily, who plundered the island for his own enrichment.

In the 60s, Cicero **supported Pompey** by speaking in favour of **Lex manilia** of 66 which gave Pompey the command against Mithridates VI. He also climbed the **cursus honorum**: he was quaestor in 75, praetor in 66, and consul in 63.

2. Cicero and Catiline Conspiracy

Catiline was a member of an obscure patrician family. He had been a legate of Sulla, and pro-prateor of Africa in 67-66BC. By 64BC he had amassed huge debts, and he hoped to clear these debts by becoming consul. However, the senate favoured Cicero instead, and he was elected instead along with another politician called Antoninus. This was very unusual as Cicero was not a member of the nobility, while Catiline was a patrician.

Catiline reacted by trying to win the consulship for the following year. He put himself forward as a champion of democracy. He promised land reform and the cancellation of debt. Both these promises won him a large following in Rome, including the unemployed, debt-ridden nobles and the dispossessed poor. However, he again failed to win the consulship.

This time Catiline reacted by plotting a widespread rebellion. When Cicero heard about the **Catiline conspiracy**, he first denounced Catiline in the senate in a series of speeches, and then arrested four of the ringleaders and had them executed without trial. Catiline was then defeated at Etruria by Antoninus. He died while fighting bravely. Cicero was subsequently hailed as the saviour of his country. However, he was now open to the charge of having executed citizens without trial. This was something which would be later used against him by his political enemies.

3. Clodius and Cicero and Pompey

Clodius: Clodius was a tribune, who had been left by Caesar in charge of his affairs while he was away in Gaul. Clodius' official job, as tribune, was to be a representative of the people, but his unofficial duty was to weaken the power of other Roman politicians, including Cicero and Pompey.

Clodius and Cicero: Clodius didn't like Cicero. Cicero had testified against him in the past – he had given evidence that Clodius had committed sacrilege by dressing up as a woman and going to an all-woman festival. However, in the end, Clodius was not found guilty because he managed to bribe the jury.

By 59BC, Cicero's power was already weakened because of the formation of the First Triumvirate. However, in 58BC Clodius set about weakening him further. He did this by introducing a law which stated that if a politician had put a Roman citizen to death without a trial, he should be sent into exile. Cicero had done this during the Catiline Conspiracy. So Cicero was forced out of Rome. He fled to Greece, hiding in fear of death.

Clodius and Pompey: Clodius then began to jeer Pompey with a gang of thugs, threatening to burn his house down. In response, Pompey got a gang together himself with the help of another tribune called **Milo** and there were regular fights in Rome. **Pompey and Milo also succeeded in recalling Cicero from Greece in 57BC.** The rioting, however, continued, and finally Clodius was killed in 52BC by Milo in one of these fights.

4. Cicero's later career

Cicero was relieved to return from exile to Rome. However, life was not easy for him. The members of the triumvirate forced him to defend his own personal enemies in court, and he was also forced to serve as a governor of the province of Cilicia (51-50BC). Cicero wanted to stay in Rome and he regarded this post as a second exile.

In 49BC, he returned to Rome to the civil war. After some indecision he joined the republican side, but he made no positive contribution to its cause. After the battle of Pharsalus, he accepted a pardon from Caesar. However, he later welcomed his assassination in 44; and he called then for the death of Mark Anthony.

Mark Antony was a prominent supporter of Caesar, who took over Caesar's party after his death. He became a member of the Second Triumvirate in 43BC along with Octavian (Augustus) and Lepidus. This triumvirate put Cicero's name on the Proscription lists, and he was killed making an ineffectual attempt to escape by sea.

5. Cicero's legacy

Cicero was a prolific author in various genres, including poetry, speeches and philosophical works. He also wrote a lot of letters which give a vivid insight into the political and social life of the time.

Sample Short Past Paper Questions: Cicero, Catiline and Clodius

1. Give two reasons why Cicero is famous.
2. Who was Catiline? What did he attempt to do?
3. Who was Catiline and what kind of a conspiracy was he involved in?
4. Who was Clodius? How was he involved in Roman politics?
5. Who was Clodius and what happened to him?
6. Who was Clodius? What was his significance in Roman politics?
7. How did Clodius and Cicero become enemies?

Sample Long Past Paper Question

8. **Cicero's** life was brutally ended in 43 BC by the soldiers of Mark Antony. Write an account of the main stages in **Cicero's** career.

Part 2:

Roman Social Life and Civilization

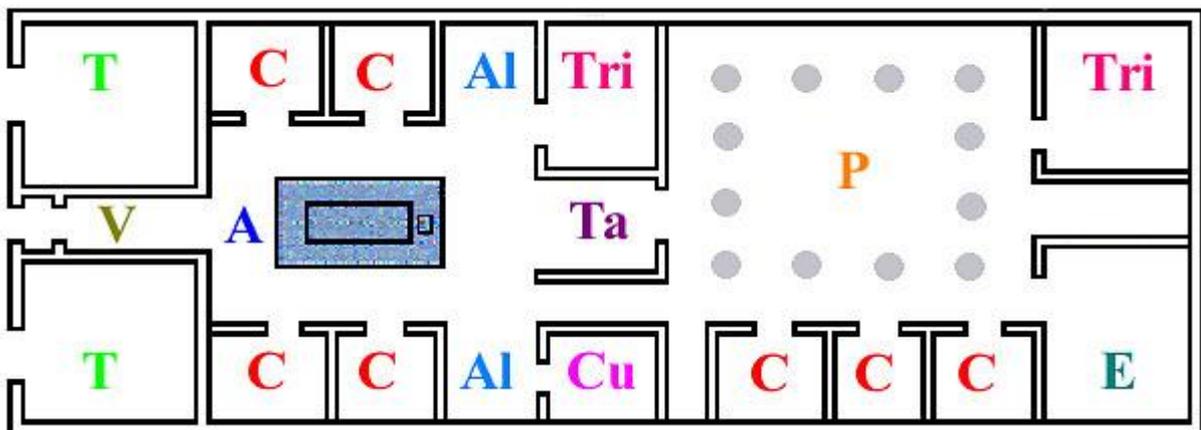
1. ROMAN HOUSING

(1) The domus

The Romans lived in three different types of houses. The first type was a domus. Most wealthy Roman families had a comfortable **domus** in town. Although these houses varied in size, *domus* followed the same basic design, and was sturdily built from stone, cement and wood. Windows were often just a slit in the outside wall which was widened on the inside to let in the maximum light. They were sometimes glazed. Larger windows were often barred with an iron grille and often shuttered. Houses were peaceful, private places, but they were also designed to welcome visitors. Important people made their homes look very grand to impress their guests.

(a) Rooms

Below is a plan of the rooms in a typical **domus**. However, it must be remembered that not all houses followed this simple arrangement. Some luxurious dwellings had two halls and two courtyards, while others at Pompeii had a private suite of baths and heating system.



V	vestibulum	entrance hall
A	atrium	formal entrance hall
T	taberna	shop
C	cubiculum	small room; bedroom
Al	ala	“wing” opening from atrium
Ta	tablinum	office; family records room
Cu	culina	kitchen
Tri	triclinium	dining room
P	peristyle	colonnaded garden
E	exedra	garden room



The facade (outside): The outside wall of a domus were plastered and painted white. Along the bottom there was usually a coloured panel, which was normally painted red. There were usually no windows at street level. This was to keep out noise, sun, smells and burglars.



Vestibulum (entrance hall): The *vestibulum* was a long, narrow passage, which connected the front door to the atrium. Only the family and important guests entered the house this way. Other people, including slaves, used a side entrance. The front door was nearly always a double door. The floor of the vestibulum was often decorated with mosaics with a message for the visitor, such as “Greetings” or “Welcome Money.” Mosaics of dogs were a popular choice. In the entrance of one house at Pompeii is a mosaic showing a chained dog

baring its teeth with the warning “Beware of the dog” (*cave canem*). Often a real dog, or a slave, kept guard in the vestibulum.



Atrium (formal entrance hall): Having walked through the vestibulum, one enters the atrium. This was a formal room where the master of the house (*paterfamilias*) received his guests and clients, but it was also used for family occasions. The atrium was covered by a roof that sloped inwards. The rain water ran down towards the centre where there was a large rectangular opening.

This opening was called a **compluvium**. Here the water passed through spouts in the shape of animals, such as dogs, wolves and lions, and fell into a large, rectangular, shallow pool which was set into the floor of the atrium. This was called the **impluvium**. When the water rose to a certain level in the impluvium it was piped to a tank under the house. The compluvium and impluvium had other benefits as well. The compluvium was the main source of light for the atrium, while the impluvium had a natural cooling effect on the hot climate of Rome. It also added to the beauty of the room, as it was often decorated with mosaics and small statues.

Tabernae (shops): The two rooms at the front of a domus were usually rented out as tabernae. As you can see from the plan, there was no access from inside the house to these shops. Instead, these rooms had separate doors that opened on to the street.

Cubiculum (bedroom): There were several small rooms (*cubicula*) grouped around the atrium. They were used for different functions, including private meetings and libraries, but usually they were used as bedrooms. These rooms seldom had windows, and they were often furnished with no more than a small chest and a bed.

Alae ('wings'): Beyond the cubicula, the atrium usually opened out into two 'wings'. These were called *alae*.



Tablinum (office; records room): The tablinum was a room located directly behind the atrium. It was open on two sides, though both sides could be closed with curtains or folding doors. Family records were stored in this room, as well as the family's money which was kept in a chest. Elite families also displayed the busts of their famous ancestors here. The master of the house, the paterfamilias, would greet his many clients on their morning visits here.

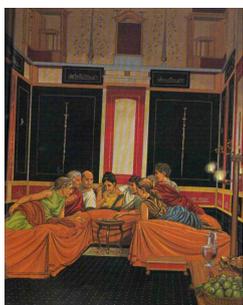
These visits were usually from 6am until 8am. The tablinum often had an attractive mosaic floor and wall paintings.



Culina (kitchen): There was no set place for the kitchen in a domus. It was usually located somewhere behind the atrium. It was frequently a tiny, dangerous, dark, hot and smoky room. So it is unsurprising that the cooking was done by slaves. There was a sink and an oven, whose top

was used to keep pots warm. These pots sat on metal grids, under which embers could be placed for a form of 'stove-top' cooking.

Toilet: Toilets were usually found either next to, or actually in, the kitchen. A wooden seat was built over a lavatory pit, which, when flushed with a bucket of water, discharged into a cesspit near the house or under the street.



Triclinium (dining room): The dining room was called the triclinium. It is one of the most interesting rooms in a domus because it is so different from our own dining rooms. Romans ate while reclining on couches. They leant on their left elbows and ate with their right hands. There were three large couches in a dining room. These couches were covered with cushions and sloped backwards. They each held three people, and were placed on three sides of the

table. The couches were usually made of wood, with bronze adornments. Triclinia were often decorated with mosaics. As you can see from the plan, there are often two triclinia in a house. One

was a winter dining room, while the other, which opened onto the peristyle, was a summer dining room.



Peristyle (garden): Instead of surrounding their houses with large lawns and gardens, the Romans created their gardens inside their houses. The most popular type of garden was the peristyle with its colonnades where one could walk in the shade during the heat of the day. Ideally this type of garden had colonnades on all four sides. Marble discs were often hung between the columns. These would revolve in the breeze flashing as they caught the sun. Gardens were planted with flowers, shrubs, and neat hedges; and they were decorated with statues and fountains and fish ponds.

Exedra (garden room): The exedra (garden room) was a large, elegant room usually located off the peristyle garden. It was used for formal entertainments and lavish dinner parties. Again, the exedra was usually decorated with beautiful wall-paintings and mosaics.

(b) Central heating



Wealthy Romans had a central heating system called a hypocaust. This ingenious Roman invention was powered by a furnace, which heated up the air under the floor. Once the house heated up it stayed warm for a long time. Other houses used small charcoal burning braziers made of bronze.



(c) Lighting: was provided by candles or oil lamps made of terracotta or bronze. Oil was poured in through a hole in the centre which was closed with a plug. The lamps had one or more spouts with wicks in them. The oil soaked up the wick providing a constant source of fuel for the flame. These lamps gave off a small amount of light. Therefore, a large number were required to light a room.

(d) Decoration

(i) Furniture: Grand houses were extravagantly furnished with intricately carved marble tables, couches decorated with ivory and gold, gleaming lamp stands and life-size statues. Sometimes

the floors were covered with leopard skins or fine Egyptian rugs. However most Roman houses had just a few simple pieces of wooden furniture, including tables, couches, cupboards, and beds.

(ii) Wall-painting: The Romans decorated their walls with frescoes. Artists began painting pictures on the walls while the plaster was still wet. Early frescoes consisted of simple blocks of colour, while later ones included architectural and theatrical scenes.



(ii) Mosaics: They decorated their floors (and sometimes walls, ceilings and fountains) with mosaics. The earliest mosaics covered the floor with a plain design of black and white squares. These mosaics placed all the squares at the same angle. Later came the 'worm' mosaic, where artists arranged pieces of different shapes and sizes in a series of squares. Simple mosaics used pebbles. More ornate mosaics were made of blocks of coloured stone called tesserae. Favourite subjects included domestic animals (dogs and cats), wild animals (birds), food, people, scenes from the theatre and skeletons.

(b) *Insulae*

The wealthiest Romans owned an elegant domus, but most people lived in apartment blocks called *insulae*. These buildings were in poor areas of town and they were often crowded and dirty. The main archaeological evidence for *insulae* comes from the Roman port of Ostia.

Construction: *Insulae* were built with concrete, which was invented in the second century B.C. Brick and wood was also used. They could be up to seven storeys in height, but were usually limited to four or five. Each *insula* contained a number of *cenacula*, or apartments. The poorest people rented small rooms on the top floor, while the richer had the larger rooms on the lower floors. One room usually housed a whole family. Sometimes an *insula* was built around a central courtyard, but more frequently it was a single building with windows looking out upon the street. Often these buildings were so badly built that they collapsed. They also often caught fire as they were built with wooden beams.

Facilities of *insulae*:

- Most *insulae* had no running water or toilets (except on the ground floor), and so many people had to use the public fountain and bath houses.
- Wax candles or smoky oil lamps were used for lighting.
- There were no kitchens, so people bought their food from snack bars.

Differences between a *domus* and an *insula*:

- The *insula* rose vertically upon a narrow base. The *domus* spread horizontally.
- The *insula* faced the street. The *domus* faced inwards towards its atrium and peristyle.

(C) *The villa*

Many wealthy Roman families had a large house – or *villa* – in the countryside, where they went to escape the stress of city life. The family usually owned all the farmland around their *villa*, and made money by selling produce from their farm.

The first *villas*, built during the Republic, were simple farmhouses surrounded by orchards, vineyards and fields for growing crops and keeping animals. Most of these farms were run by a manager, as the owner usually lived in town. They often included granaries, oil-presses, wine-presses, and cellars to store large storage jars.

As Rome became more prosperous, and more people wealthy, grand *villas* were built all over the Empire. They were decorated like the *domus*. These *villas* sometimes included a bakery, a bath-house and a swimming-pool. Most *villas* were still part of a farm – or estate – but many were situated well away from the fields. However, a few of the larger *villas* had no connection with farming, and were built simply as lavish country homes. The nearby fields only grew food for the owner and his family.

The grandest *villas* had spacious gardens full of statues and ornamental pools. People relaxed in courtyards surrounded by elegant columns. Many of the most impressive *villas* were situated on beautiful stretches of coastline (e.g. Baiae on the bay of Naples), where the owners could spend summer days bathing in the sea. One of the most impressive *villas* was built by the Emperor Hadrian at Tivoli near Rome. He included a stadium, library and two bath houses there. The Emperor Tiberius had no fewer than 12 *villas* on the island of Capri.

Sample Short Past Paper Questions: Housing

1. What was the main difference between a domus and a villa?
2. What kind of building was an *insula*?
3. Mention two disadvantages of living in the kind of building called an insula.
4. Describe the main features of the *atrium* in a Roman house.
5. Where was the *impluvium* in a Roman house? What was its function?
6. Where was the *compluvium* in a Roman house? What was its function?
7. What was a *triclinium*? Describe its main features.
8. What was the function of the *tablinum* in a Roman house?
9. How were Roman houses (a) decorated, (b) heated and (c) lit?
10. Where was the *culina* located in a Roman house? What was its function? Describe what it looked like.
11. Where was the peristyle located in a Roman house? What was its function? Describe what it looked like.
12. Where was the vestibulum located in a Roman house? What was its function? Describe what it looked like.
13. Where was the *exedra* located in a Roman house? What was its function? Describe what it looked like.

Sample Long Past Paper Questions: Housing

14. 2012



- (i) Where would you normally expect to see mosaics in a Roman house? (2)
- (ii) Explain **two** differences between a *domus* and an *insula*. (6)
- (iii) Imagine you are a Roman boy or girl whose family has just moved into a house like the one illustrated above. Write a letter to a friend describing its main features. (12)

15. 2003



- (i) In a Roman house where would you find a mosaic like this? (2)
- (ii) Describe the kind of floor and wall decorations you would expect to see in the house of a wealthy Roman. (8)
- (iii) Imagine you are a Roman living on the top floor of a run-down block of flats (*insula*). Write a letter to a friend describing your accommodation and what life is like there. (10)

2. ROMAN FOOD

Breakfast, lunch and dinner

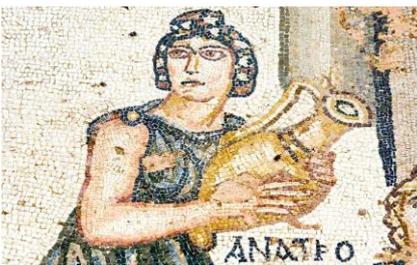
The **ientaculum** was a Roman breakfast. It was usually just a drink of water or wine, along with a piece of bread or wheat biscuits sweetened with honey.

The **prandium** was a Roman lunch. It was usually eaten at midday. It was a simple meal consisting of eggs, cheese, cold meat and fruit; or something cold leftover from the previous day's main meal, called the **cena**. Many Romans did not eat this meal, but waited until the **cena**. At one house in Herculaneum (a town near Pompeii) the prandium was found ready on a table. It had been preserved by mud which had engulfed the town. It was a lunch of bread, salad, eggs, cake and fruit. The shells of the eggs were not even broken.



The **cena** was the main meal of the day. It was usually eaten in the late afternoon. During the early republic it was a simple meal. Wheat was eaten as a kind of porridge together with sauces and vegetables. In later times meals improved. The main food of poorer Romans was still bread, porridge and also stew, but the average Roman would now eat roast poultry or fish.

Wine and Water



The Romans drank lots of wine and they could choose from around 200 types which were made all over the empire. Wine was often spiced, or sweetened with honey and usually diluted with water. Drinking it undiluted wasn't considered respectable. Other popular drinks included grape juice and goat's milk and people could also drink from public fountains.

Spices and Sauces

Rich Romans loved spicy food and most of their meals were highly seasoned or eaten with a strong sauce. One of the most popular sauces was a thick, salty concoction called *liquamen* or *garum* which was made from pickled fish. Strongly flavoured sauces were favoured and a wide range of spices was imported. Salt was in demand as a preservative as well as a flavouring and it was also imported.

Cooking

Poor people did not cook. Most people lived in apartment blocks with wooden beams and floors (*insulae*), and it was forbidden to light cooking fires inside, in case the building burned down. Instead of cooking at home, people usually bought hot food, such as pies, sausages and stews, from snack bars in the street.

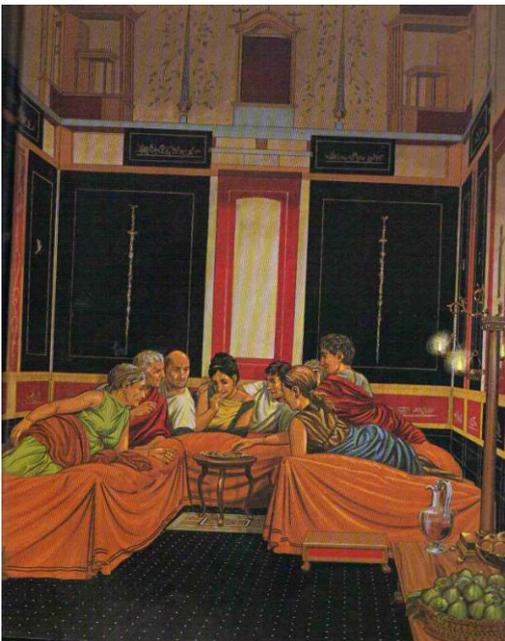


In wealthy houses slaves did all the cooking in the kitchen called the ***culina***. There was no set place for the ***culina*** in a *domus*. It was usually located somewhere behind the atrium. It was a small, dark, and smoky room. There was a sink and an oven, whose top was used to keep pots warm. These pots sat on metal grids, under which embers could

be placed for a form of stove-top cooking.

A Roman kitchen was equipped with many of the same utensils that we use today, including saucepans, cheese graters, and strainers. These items were usually made of bronze which can make food taste strange, so some pans were coated with silver. Food was boiled, grilled, stewed, or roasted on a spit. To preserve food it was smoked, pickled or salted.

Dinner parties



Wealthy Romans loved to eat elaborate food and they often threw lavish dinner parties. Hosting a party was a great way for people to show off their wealth and power, and important Romans tried to outdo each other by making their banquets more and more extravagant.

A dinner party usually began in the early evening. The guests would remove their sandals at the door and their feet were washed by a slave, before being announced by an usher. They would then be shown to their place and have their hands washed with perfumed water. Having clean hands was important as people usually ate with their fingers.

Meals were eaten in a dining room called the ***triclinium***. Guests ate here while reclining on couches. They leant on their left elbows and ate with their right hands. There were three large couches in a triclinium. These couches were covered with cushions and sloped backwards. They

each held three people, and were placed on three sides of the table. These couches were usually made of wood, with bronze adornments. Triclinia were often decorated with mosaics. There were often two triclinia in a house. One was a winter dining room, while the other, which opened onto the peristyle, was a summer dining room.

A full meal was sometimes made up of seven courses but always had at least three. It could last as long as ten hours.

Starters: Starters included radishes, mushrooms, shellfish, sardines, and eggs. Starters were often followed by a drink of mulsum (wine sweetened with honey).

Main course: The main course consisted of fish, game, poultry and sometimes pork. It was served with a variety of vegetables and sauces. The most common vegetables were beans, beetroot, garlic, marrows, and onions.

Dessert: Desserts included honey cakes, stuffed dates, nuts and fruit. The most common fruits were grapes and figs, but apples, pears and mulberries were also eaten.



Lavish dinners could also include such delicacies as dormice in honey, a pig stuffed with blood puddings and sausages, flamingos' tongues or even elephant trunks. The way food looked was just as important as how it tasted, and cooks particularly enjoyed disguising one food as another. The writer Petronius boasted that his chef could make a pig's belly look just like a fish.

Normally, there were only a small number of guests. However, the triclinium would have been full, and the slaves must have found it difficult to move about freely and serve a meal. Rather than clearing the dishes after the main meal, the slaves removed the table instead and replaced it with another table full of desserts. This part of the meal was known as *secundae mensae* (second tables).

Food was served on dishes made of glass or pottery, but if the host was very rich there would also be ornate platters of gold and silver. Cups were made of bronze, silver and coloured glass. At one house in Pompeii, 118 pieces of silver were found, including plates, cups, and bowls.

During the meal there may have been musicians and entertainers. On special occasions a famous poet would be invited to read one of his new poems. As dusk descended lamps on the lamp-stands were lit. The feasting could go on until late into the night.

Sample Short Past Paper Questions: Food

1. What kinds of entertainment were often provided at a Roman cena?
2. Describe what happened at a Roman *cena*.
3. Describe a Roman ientaculum.
4. Describe a Roman prandium.

Sample Long Past Paper Question: Food

2015

Look at the illustration below of a Roman cena and answer the questions which follow:-

- (i) Describe the main features of the triclinium in a Roman house and explain why it is called a triclinium. (8)
- (ii) Imagine you are the client of a wealthy Roman who has invited you to a special cena. Write a letter to a friend describing the evening. Mention the way the triclinium is decorated, the guests, the various courses of the meal and the entertainment. (12)



3. THE ROMAN FAMILY

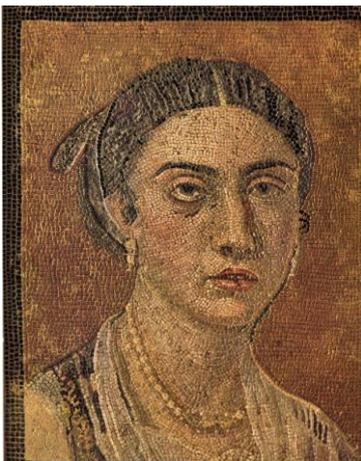


The family was an important part of Roman life, and most Romans took their duty to their family very seriously.

Paterfamilias: The *paterfamilias* was the head of the Roman household. His family included his wife and children, his son's wives and children and all their slaves. His main role was **to look after the family**. He had complete authority over them all. He was entitled to treat them as he wished, and had the right to sell them or even kill them. He was also responsible for **looking**

after the religious activities in the house. He led the daily ceremony at the lararium.

If the *paterfamilias* was wealthy he also acted as a **patron**. A *patron* was a wealthy Roman who had a lot of supporters, called **clients**, who relied on him for help. Clients were expected to visit their *patron* every morning. He would usually conduct business with them in the *tablinum*. These clients would accompany him whenever he went out, and vote for him if he entered politics. In return, the patron would help his clients with their career and occasionally ask them to dinner.



Women: The life of women in a wealthy Roman family was very different. While Roman men had the right to engage in business and politics and also to vote, women could not do any of these things. Instead, the main roles of Roman women were **to have children** and **to manage the household**. These two roles were very important in Roman life, and were often remembered on Roman women's tombstones.

However, although women had very few rights, many of them were very powerful behind the scenes. A wife often ran her husband's business while he was away and the many politicians' wives took an active interest in their husbands' careers.

Unsurprisingly, the population of Roman women was less than Roman men. This was due to the exposure of female babies at birth, the death of mothers in childbirth, and because of malnutrition; it is thought that girls may not have been fed as well as boys.

However, the life a Roman woman was probably not as bad as the life of an ancient Greek woman. Ancient Greek women had to do all the housework, and they may also have had to live in seclusion (stayed at home). In contrast, wealthy Roman women supervised slaves doing all the housework, although they did do some spinning and weaving themselves. Also, Roman women did not live in seclusion. With their free time, they attended festivals, the theatre, the amphitheatre and the baths, while poorer Roman women worked outside the *domus* as midwives, hairdressers, or in the family shop or farm.

Children:

When a child was born in the family household the *paterfamilias* had the power to decide whether to recognise the child as part of the family or to expose the child (which led to their death). If the child was accepted this was the signal for celebration. **Wreaths** were hung on doorposts to announce the baby's arrival.



When girls were eight days old and boys were nine days old, the family held the **Day of Purification**. This was a major family event. Presents were bought and the **bullā**, a golden amulet, was hung around the baby's neck as a lucky charm. The baby was named and prayers were said for his or her health and happiness.

Sons were usually given three names: **praenomen** (first name), **nomen** (tribal or clan name), and **cognomen** (name of the specific branch of the clan). Sometimes a fourth name was added, e.g. Publius Cornelius Scipio Africanus. Daughters were named after the feminine form of the nomen and the genitive form of either their father or their husband's cognomen; for example, Julia Caesaris or Clodia, Metelli. If families had more than one daughter, they were distinguished by the words *maior* and *minor* ("elder" and "younger"). If there were more than two, numerals were added, e.g. Cornelia prima, Cornelia secunda, Cornelia tertia etc.

Children were firmly under the authority of the paterfamilias. In theory, the paterfamilias was even entitled by law to kill his children, though in practice this did not happen. At the age of 16, boys were released from their father's authority by a coming of age ceremony. Then the boy removed his bulla and swapped his *toga praetexta* (a toga with a purple stripe), for a plain white toga. Girls were only released from their father's authority if they got married. They were then under the authority of their husband. However, very often girls remained permanently under their father's authority, even when they were married. This meant that a marriage could be ended more easily.

Sample Short Past Paper Questions: Family

1. What was a *bulla*? What was its purpose?
2. List the three parts of a Roman citizen's name. Give an example of such a name.
3. What was the role of the *paterfamilias* in a Roman family?
4. Describe the relationship between a *patronus* and his *clientes* in Roman society.
5. What was the role of the *materfamilias* in a Roman family?
6. What was the role of the *paterfamilias* when a new child was born into a Roman family?

4. SLAVES



Slaves who worked in Roman homes were also considered part of the family of the paterfamilias. A wealthy Roman household needed a minimum of ten slaves to run it. They did the shopping, cooking and cleaning. They also served at meals and helped the mistress with her hair, clothes and makeup. Many slaves were very well educated, especially slaves from Greece.

These slaves were expensive to buy. They worked in wealthy Roman homes as private tutors, doctors and librarians.

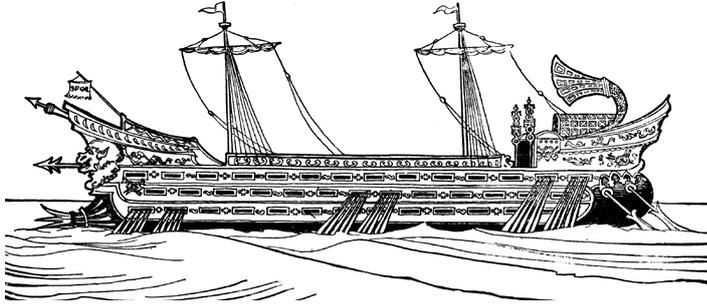
Slaves were either born into the family or else wealthy Romans bought their slaves from dealers. **Slaves came from different sources**, including: prisoners of war, piracy, kidnapping, exposed babies and criminals. Moreover, sometimes parents who were in debt were forced to sell their children into slavery.

Slaves had no rights and belonged entirely to the paterfamilias. However, in many Roman homes, they were treated kindly and sometimes the children of a trusted slave were brought up as companions for the master's children. In other homes they were treated as animals. If a paterfamilias or a member of his family was attacked and killed by one of his slaves, all the slaves under his roof would be killed as both a punishment and a warning. If a slave ran away and was caught his forehead was branded with the letters FUG standing for *fugitivus*, meaning runaway or fugitive. All slaves wore an identity tag inscribed with the name and address of their master.

Slavery wasn't always for life and some slaves were granted freedom as a reward for loyal service. Other slaves managed to save small amounts of money (*peculium*) and buy their own freedom. It would usually take 20 years to save enough. However, most slaves did not have this opportunity, as they did not get any money. The setting free of a faithful slave involved an important ceremony. Usually the **paterfamilias** gave a big party. The slave knelt down wearing a pointed hat and was tapped on the shoulder by the paterfamilias. He was then given a *toga praetexta* and called a 'freedman'. Sometimes the paterfamilias set him up in business. The freedman then became a **client** to the paterfamilias who now became his **patron**. If the patron was going up for election the freedman would vote for him. These freedmen could then buy their own property and keep their own slaves. Some were very successful and had good careers, including the famous Roman poet Horace who was the son of a freedman.

There were other types of slaves in Rome who were not part of the family of a *paterfamilias*. These included:

(1) **Urban slaves.** Most urban slaves worked for the government as:



a) **Secretaries.** These were educated slaves usually from Greece.

b) **Cleaners.** These were unskilled slaves who assisted the aediles

in cleaning the streets.

c) **Bath-workers.** These were unskilled slaves who assisted the aediles in cleaning the baths and stoking the furnaces.

d) **Gladiators.** These slaves fought to the death. Very occasionally a gladiator was freed because fought bravely and survived many fights.

e) **Galley slaves:** These were criminals condemned to row ships chained to their oars.

f) **Building-site workers:** These slaves were given the most dangerous jobs. They sometimes worked for the government, but they also worked for private individuals.

g) **Shop workers** and workshops (e.g. as a carpenter, blacksmith). These slaves worked for private individuals.

(2) **Rural slaves**

- **Mine-workers.** Unsold slaves were sent to the mines. Life expectancy was one year. Some never saw daytime. They were given the minimum food and water and they worked to death.

- **Farm workers:** These slaves worked 9-15 hours a day, 7 days a week. They ploughed the fields and did general farm work. They were managed by an overseer (*vilicus*). Most of the landlords were absentee landlords. The slaves were chained at night. A hardworking slave might get extra food or clothes and the chance of promotion to overseer.

Spartacus

Spartacus is perhaps the most famous Roman slave. He was a Thracian gladiator who escaped from the Roman town of Capua and in 73BC he led a slave revolt which spread throughout southern Italy. 90,000 slaves took part in the revolt. They overran southern Italy for three years, but finally in 71BC Spartacus was defeated and killed in Lucania in 71BC by Crassus. He crucified any rebels he captured all along the Appian Way. His courage made Spartacus a legend in his lifetime.

Sample Short Past Paper Questions: Slaves

1. Explain why Greek slaves were often the most expensive.
2. What was the ceremony of *manumissio*? Describe what happened.
3. Name two sources from which the Romans got slaves.

Sample Long Past Paper Questions: Slaves

4. 2001

- a. Describe what happens at the ceremony of manumission. (4)
- b. Mention **two** common ways in which people became slaves in the Roman world. (4)
- c. Imagine you have been a slave in the Roman world for twenty years. You have served your master well and are now being set free. Describe your work during your years of slavery. Say why you are being set free, and what you plan to do once you are free.

5. 2007



- a. Describe what is happening in the illustration. (4)
- b. Mention **two** common ways in which people became slaves in the Roman world. (4)
- c. Imagine you are the slave of a wealthy family in Pompeii. Write a letter to a friend describing the routine of your daily life and what you would like to do if you are set free.

5. ROMAN RELIGION

Gods at home



Lares: The Lares were spirits who originally guarded the fields, but later also watched over the house. They were usually depicted in paintings and statuettes as two young men who were dancing and drinking. They were worshipped in the atrium of a Roman *domus* or *villa* at a shrine called a *lararium*.

Genius: Another guardian spirit was the Genius. He protected the family

through the generations. He ensured that the family line would continue. He was often depicted as a snake in paintings and mosaics.

Penates: These spirits looked after goods and property, especially the larder and food cupboards.

Janus: Janus was the god of the doorway.

Vesta: Vesta was the goddess of the hearth.

Worship of gods at home: These gods were worshipped at the *lararium* where the family held daily prayers and offered food and wine. On special occasions, the gods were given extra gifts.

Official State Religion



Major State Gods: There were many Roman gods and goddesses. The three most important were Jupiter, Juno and Minerva. They shared a temple on the Capitol Hill. Most Roman gods were borrowed from the Greeks. This is why most gods have two names: one Greek and one Roman. Each god controlled a different aspect of life.



Other State Gods: The Roman State also had its **Lares**, **Penates**, **Janus** and **Vesta**. **Vesta** was a very important state goddess. She had a shrine in the forum, where a fire burned constantly. This fire was looked after by six women known as the Vestal Virgins. They were chosen from Rome's leading families. It was a privilege to be selected but they had to do the job for 30 years and were not allowed to marry.

Sacrifice: The state gods had large and impressive temples built for them. Ceremonies were held outside the temple, but individuals could also go inside for a private prayer. One very important ceremony was sacrifice. Offerings to the gods ranged from simple cakes and flowers to elaborate statues, but the most popular gift was an animal. Sacrificing a valuable animal was meant to show the gods how much they cared about them. Priests sacrificed oxen, sheep, pigs and doves on open-air altars in front of temples. Once the creature had been killed, its internal organs were taken out and examined by a **haruspex**. The Romans believed that the **haruspex** was able to interpret omens and to find out the will of the gods in this way. After this, the organs were burned on the altar, and the rest of the meat was served up as a feast for the god's followers.

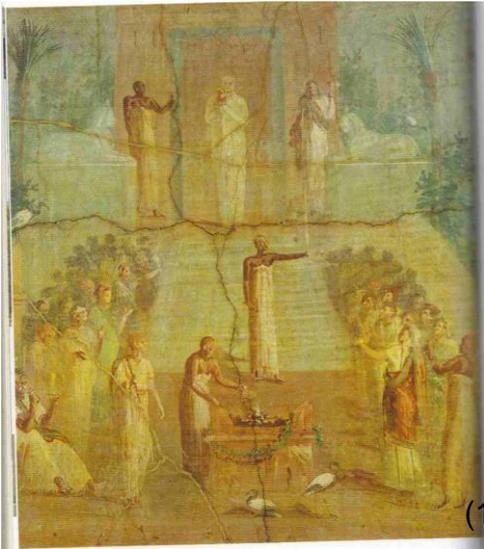
Augur: The Romans also believed that omens could be interpreted from the flight of birds, cloud shapes and lightening. In Rome there was a group of 16 prophets known as augurs who did this.

Pontifex Maximus: The chief priest was the called the Pontifex Maximus.

The emperors: State religion changed under the emperors. When Julius Caesar died he was deified (i.e. he became a god). This became the usual practice for all emperors when they died.

Other Religions

(a) Mystic or Mystery Religions



The Romans also practiced 'mystery' religions, which were not recognised by the state. These religions shared a belief in the afterlife. State religion offered no such comfort. They were called 'mystery' religions because worshippers had to undergo secret or 'mystery' rituals in order to become a member of the religion.

Mystery religions include the worship of:

- (1) **(1) Cybele.** She was known as the Magna Mater, the Great Mother. She ruled healing and nature.
- (2) **Bacchus.** His Greek name was Dionysus. He was the god of wine.
- (3) **Mithras.** This religion started in India. It stated that all men were equally worthy.
- (4) **Isis.** The worship of Isis began in Egypt. She was the goddess of wheat and barley.

(b) Christianity

Christianity spread rapidly in the first century AD. It was popular with the poor, who found comfort in the promise of everlasting life. They refused to believe in the official state gods, and were persecuted by the state because of this. Eventually in 394BC, Christianity became the official state religion.

Sample Short Past Paper Questions: Religion

1. What were the *Lares* and *Penates* in Roman religion?
2. What was a *lararium* in a Roman house? Where was it usually situated?
3. What was the role of an augur in Roman religion?
4. What was the role of a *haruspex* in Roman religion? / What were the main duties of a *haruspex*?
5. Name the Capitoline gods and say what their function was in the Roman state.
6. Who were the Vestal Virgins and what was their role?
7. Name two Roman gods or goddesses. Describe their roles.

Sample Long Past Paper Questions: Religion

8. 2005

- (i) Who was Vesta? What was the role of the Vestal Virgins? (8)
- (ii) Imagine you are a Roman who has been asked to explain some of your main religious beliefs to friends in the provinces. Write a letter of explanation including information about some of the following: the *Lares* and *Penates*; the major gods and goddesses; sacrifice and the augur and *haruspex*.

9. 2014



- (i) Where would you normally expect to see a *lararium* in a Roman house? (2)
- (ii) What was the function of a *lararium*? What were the *Lares* and *Penates*? (6)
- (iii) Imagine you are a Roman boy or girl. You have been asked to explain Roman religious customs to friends in the provinces. Write a letter including information about the major gods and goddesses; the Vestal Virgins; sacrifice and the *augur* and *haruspex*. (12)

6. ROMAN WEDDINGS & FUNERALS

MARRIAGE



Roman marriage scene, showing the couple linking right hands

Roman girls usually married between the ages of 12 and 14. Boys were usually much older.

The Sponsalia. The *Sponsalia* was the the engagement ceremony. It was attended by the prospective bride and groom, and their parents. The father promised his daughter to the groom-to-be. Gifts were given to the bride-to-be and a gold ring was placed on her third finger of her left hand. A dowry was worked out.

The Night before the Wedding: On the day before her marriage, the bride usually offered her toys to the household gods, the Lares. She was given jewellery and other gifts.

The Nuptiae: The *Nuptiae* was the wedding. It was held in the house of the bride's father. Friends and clients of both families attended. The bride was dressed in a

straight white tunic, a yellow cloak and an orange veil and shoes. Her hair was divided into six locks and adorned with ribbons. At the wedding ceremony the bride addressed the bridegroom with the words 'ubi tu Gaius, ego Gaia' meaning 'Wherever you are Gaius, I Gaia am there.' Words of consent were spoken and the matron of honour performed the marriage ceremony by linking the bride's and bridegroom's right hands. The marriage contract, which included details of a dowry, was then signed by ten people. There followed a wedding feast, usually at the expense of the bridegroom.

The Deductio. The *Deductio* was a procession. This was thought to be the most important part of the ceremony. The bride was escorted in a procession to the bridegroom's house, where he had already gone to welcome her. A boy carrying a torch walked before her, and two others walked by her side. She carried wool, a distaff and a spindle, the symbols of her future life. When the bride arrived at her new husband's house, the bridegroom carried her over the threshold to avert an ill-omened stumble. The next day she wore a married woman's clothing for the first time.

FUNERALS



Roman patrician, holding wax portraits of his dead ancestors

When a person died, his or her eyes were closed. All present shouted the dead person's name, and a coin was placed under the person's tongue to pay Charon to carry his or her spirit across the river Styx to the underworld. It was believed the spirit then went to either Elysium (heaven) or Tartarus (hell).

Then the burial preparations began. Firstly, the body was washed, anointed with oil and dressed in fine clothes. It was then placed on a special couch in the atrium and surrounded by flower wreaths and candles. Mourning and grief were expressed loudly and openly. Women kept up a continual lament.

The day of the funeral was announced by a herald. Torch-bearers and *praeficae* (professional mourners) led a procession. Next came mourners wearing or carrying wax portraits of the dead person's ancestors. These mourners also dressed in the ancestors' grandest clothes to show off their wealth and status. Sometimes they stood in chariots. Next was the dead person carried on an open litter (portable couch). Finally, the living family mourners came.

The whole procession moved to the burial site for either a cremation or burial. This was held outside the walls of the city in order to prevent disease. For burial the body was placed in a coffin called a sarcophagus. For cremation the corpse was either placed in a pit which was filled with wood or onto a funeral pyre. When the ashes were cooled they were placed in an urn and then into a tomb.

Some of the tombs were huge structures built along the main roads into the city. Food, drink, clothing and tools were also buried with the dead person. Interestingly, the funeral did not end interest in the dead person's welfare. It was important to look after the ghost, partly to prevent haunting. Anniversary banquets were held to cheer up the dead, and libations were poured at their tombs.

Sample Short Past Paper Questions: Weddings and Funerals

1. Who would say *ubi tu Gaius, ego Gaia* and under what circumstances?
2. Describe two customs connected with a Roman funeral.
3. Describe two customs connected with Roman marriage / wedding ceremonies.

Sample Long Past Paper Questions: Weddings and Funerals

4. **2008**



- (i) Describe what is happening in the illustration. (6)
- (ii) Imagine you are a Roman boy or girl writing a letter to a friend in Greece. In your letter describe to your friend the main customs connected with Roman marriage ceremonies. (14)

5. **2016** Look at the illustration below of a funeral procession on a Roman sarcophagus and answer the questions which follow:-



- (i) Describe what is happening in the relief carving above. (4)
- (ii) Describe two customs connected with Roman funerals. (4)
- (iii) Imagine you are a Roman senator. Write a *laudatio funebris* (funeral speech) for a distinguished colleague and friend who has just died. (12)

OR

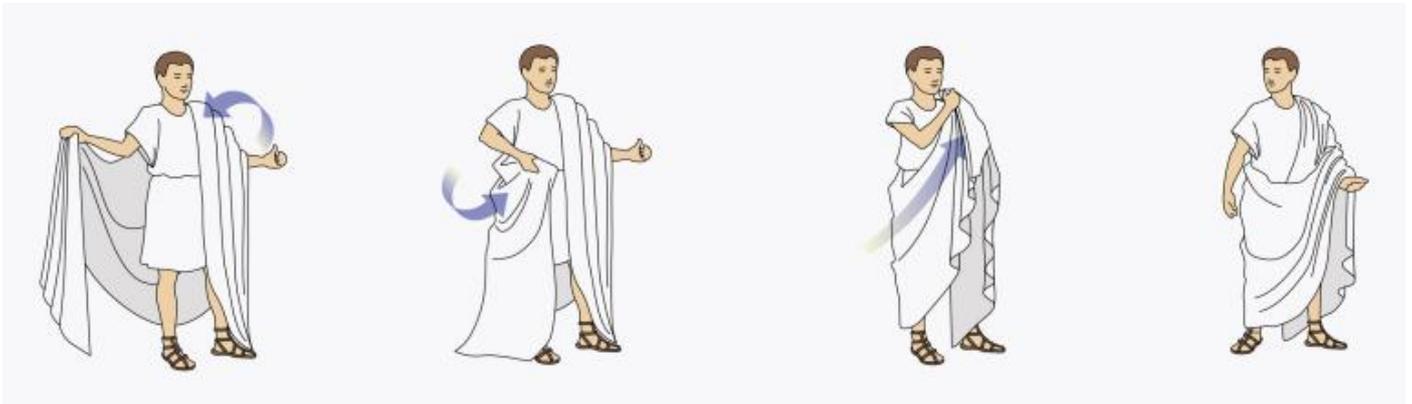
Imagine you are a Roman boy or girl. Write a letter to a friend in the provinces describing a funeral you have just attended. (12)

7. ROMAN CLOTHING

Tunics and Togas for Men



The main garment for men was a **tunic** made out of two rectangles of wool stitched together and tied with a belt. A tunic was short-sleeved and knee-length. Over their tunic, Roman citizens sometimes wore a **toga**. A toga was a large piece of white woollen cloth worn over the left shoulder, carried under the right armpit and again over the left shoulder. However, because the toga was so heavy and awkward, it was usually only worn on important public occasions.



Different types of tunic and toga

- A senator's tunic had two broad purple stripes at the front. Purple was the most expensive dye and only the wealthiest people could afford it.
- The tunics of the equites had two narrow stripes.
- A consul's toga had a purple band along one of the long sides.
- An emperor's toga was completely purple.
- A boy until the age of 16 wore a **toga praetexta**. This was plain white woollen garment **with a broad purple band** at the edge like a senator.
- After the age of 16 boys wore a **toga virilis**. This was a plain white woollen garment. There was no purple edge. This change in toga was part of an important ceremony in which a boy was considered to have become a man. As well as getting a new type of toga, the boy also offered his locket, called a *bulla*, to the household gods. He then went with his father to the public records office (*tabularium*) to have his name registered. He was now recognised as a Roman citizen.

Tunics, Stolas and Pallas for Women



Women also wore a short-sleeved knee-length **tunic**. Unmarried women wore a longer **tunic** as well over this, while married women wore a long robe called a **stola** which reached to the ankles and had a wide flounce attached to the lower hem. Women also wore a rectangular shawl, known as a **palla**. The palla was either draped around their shoulders or looped over the head like a hood.

Children

Most children wore **tunics** like those of their parents. Some boys wore the **toga praetexta** which was replaced by the **toga virilis** at the age of 16. All children wore a locket called a **bulla**, which warded off evil spirits.

Shoes and Hats

Leather shoes (*calcei*) were worn in the city and boots (*perones*) were worn in the country. A **petasus** was a broad brimmed hat worn by men to protect them from the sun.

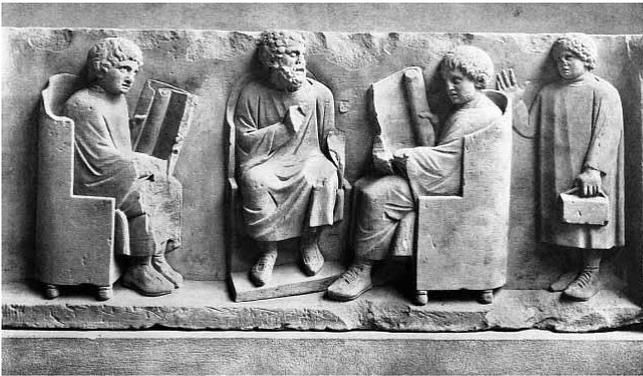
1. Sample Short Past Paper Questions: Clothing

1. Name and describe two articles of Roman clothing.
2. Name and describe two articles of clothing worn by a Roman woman.
3. Give one reason why a Roman might be reluctant to wear the toga.
4. What was a toga praetexta? Who would wear it?
5. What was a toga virilis? Who would wear it?
6. What did Roman children wear?

8. ROMAN EDUCATION

Children from poor families had to go out to work at an early age, but families who could afford it sent their children to school when they were seven. It is estimated that only about 20% of Roman men could read and write. Like today, in Roman times, the more education people had, the more likely they were to get better jobs and earn more money. Learning to read and write was the first important step. Without literacy the top jobs were out of a person's reach, including the law, military and politics. Literacy brought more than education to Romans: it gave them influence and power.

Roman Schools



Schools were usually located in a ***pergola*** on the side of a street with only a curtain separating them from the noise of the city. However, sometimes wealthy families had their children taught at home privately; these lessons were usually held in the peristyle. Most schools only had about 12 pupils. Most teachers were Greek slaves.

The school year began in March. Festive days, as well as every ninth day, were holidays. There was probably also a summer holiday. The school day lasted from dawn until noon without a break.

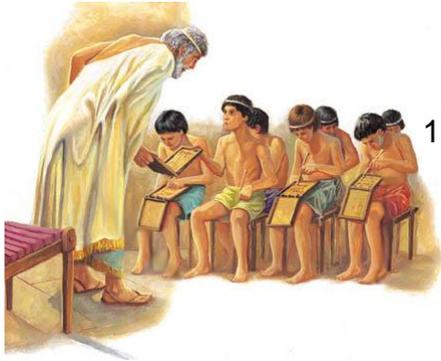
Pupils were always accompanied to school by a senior slave called a ***paedagogus***. He made sure that the pupil arrived at school on time, and behaved properly when he was there. Our word today for a strict teacher, a pedagogue, comes from the name of this slave. Discipline at school was strict; beatings were very common.



Instead of paper, most pupils used ***cerae***. These were wax tablets made of pieces of wood coated with wax. Instead of pens, a ***stylus*** was used. A stylus was an object made of metal, bone or ivory, pointed at one end like a pen in order to write in the wax, and flattened at the other end in order to erase the writing. Older pupils

used pens made from reeds, and either papyrus or parchment made from cow hide. Ink was made from either soot, or the ink from squid or octopus. Instead of books, pupils used **scrolls**. These were made by gluing together pages to form one long strip which could then be rolled up on a staff. To help them in maths, they also had charts on the walls and an **abacus**. An abacus was a counting frame.

There were three types of teacher who taught in three different types of school.



1. (1) The **ludi magister** was a teacher who taught in a **ludus**. This was the equivalent of our primary school. Girls and boys between the ages of 7 and 11 were taught together here, where they learned how to read, write and count. Pupils had to recite the alphabet and copy simple proverbs. The education of many

children ended here. Instead, many became apprentices in order to learn a trade, while girls stayed at home where they were taught practical household duties. Some girls however continued their education at home, and there are some examples of women who were educated, and who later played their part in public life in Rome.



2. (2) The **grammaticus** was a teacher who taught in a school equivalent to our secondary school. Boys between the ages of 12 and 16 were taught Greek and Roman literature, history, geography astronomy, music, mathematics and athletics. Students had to explain grammar and recite from texts.

(3) The **rhetor** was a teacher who taught in a school equivalent to our third level education. Only very privileged children continued to this stage. It was here that one of the most valued Roman skills was taught: oratory or public speaking. The ability to argue a case in public and with confidence was essential for anyone wanting a career in politics, the law, or the military. Debates were carried out among students. A small number of these students completed their education by doing further courses in rhetoric and philosophy at Athens or somewhere else in Greece.

Sample Short Past Paper Questions: Education

1. What were the duties of a *paedagogus* in a Roman family
2. What was the job of a *grammaticus*?
3. What was a *rhetor*? What was the most important aspect of his job?
4. Describe any two Roman writing materials.
5. Where would one use an abacus and for what purpose?
6. Why was the study of Greek so important for the Romans?
7. What kind of education did a Roman girl normally receive?
8. What was the job of a *ludi magister*?

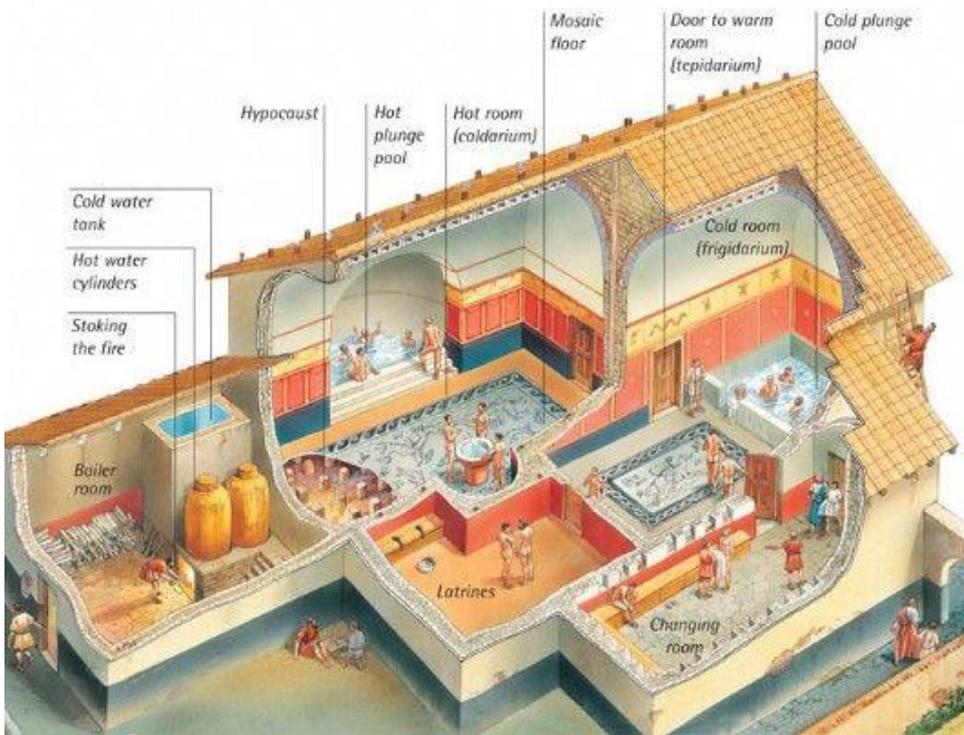
Sample Long Past Paper Questions: Education

9. 2004



- (i) Describe what is happening in the illustration.(8)
- (ii) Imagine you are a *paedagogus* to a wealthy Roman family. Write a letter to a friend describing your duties and daily life.(12)

9. ROMAN BATHS



Very few Roman houses had a bathroom, so most people made a daily trip to the public bath-house. But a visit to the bath house involved much more than a good wash. The largest bath houses were vast leisure complexes where people could exercise, meet friends, discuss business and politics, or simply relax.

By the time of Augustus there were 170 privately-owned bath-houses, and in AD20 the first state-owned public baths opened. By AD 300, the city of Rome had 11 public baths, called *therma*, and about 1,000 privately owned bathhouses where people could bathe in greater privacy.

Some emperors built spectacular public baths, gleaming with gold and marble and beautiful mosaics to show off their wealth and power. The most impressive baths were those built by Emperor Caracalla, which could hold up to 1,600 people at a time. Other important baths were the baths of Agrippa, Trajan and Diocletian. The public official who looked after the baths was called an *aedile*. (There were four aediles in total. They were also responsible for the markets, streets and games).

The baths were usually open from mid-morning until sunset, and most Romans went every day. Women went in the morning and men in the afternoon.

Entrance to the baths was extremely cheap, especially for men, who were only charged a quadrans – the smallest Roman coin. Women had to pay four times that amount, but children got in free. Wealthy politicians sometimes tried to win votes by paying everyone's fees for a day.

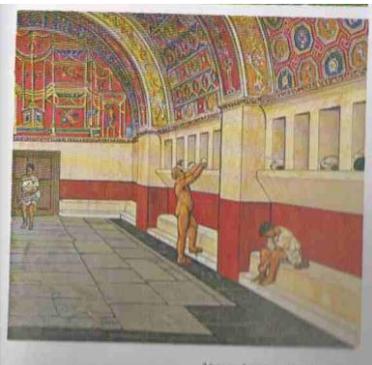
A typical visit to the baths



Palaestra

Before bathing, men and women would often go to the *palaestra*. The palaestra was an open-air area covered in sand. Several games were played, including:

- bowling, which was played along a paved alley.
- boxing either a punch-bag filled with flour or clay, or each other
- discus
- gymnastics
- running
- tennis, which used the palm of the hand as a racquet.
- *trigon*, which was a ballgame for three players. Each player stood at the corners of a triangle and flung the ball to each other, without warning. They caught with one hand and threw with the other.
- *trochus*, which involved rolling a metal hoop by pushing it with a hooked stick.
- weight-lifting
- wrestling



Apodyterium

The apodyterium was the changing room. This room often had stone or wooden benches with holes in the walls where the bathers could put their clothes. Wealthy Romans would leave a slave here to look after their clothes.

Tepidarium

The bathers then went to a warm room called the *tepidarium*. This area helped them get used to the heat. It had a lukewarm pool.

Laconicum

After the tepidarium some bathers, usually the elderly, continued to the *laconicum*. This was a hot, steam-filled room like a sauna today.



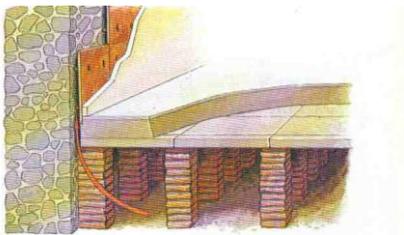
Caldarium

After the *tepidarium* most bathers went to the *caldarium*. This was the hot room. It had a hot pool. The floor was so hot here that people had to wear special clogs with wooden soles to protect their feet. It was here that the Romans cleaned themselves using oil. The Romans did not have soap, but used olive-oil instead. A slave cleaned the bather here by scraping the oil off, along with the dirt, with a strigil. A strigil was a curved scraper made of metal.

Frigidarium

After the caldarium the bathers would go back to the *tepidarium* to cool down before they went to the *frigidarium*. This was the cold room. Usually it was a small circular room with a cold plunge pool, but sometimes it had a large rectangular pool.

Heating the baths



The baths were heated by a central heating system, called a *hypocaust*. Hot air, warmed by a furnace in the basement, ran under the floors, and inside the walls. To allow this, the walls were panelled and the floor was raised up on small rectangular pillars.

Toilets



Poor Romans did not have toilets at home. They used public toilets at the baths. Along three sides of the room there was a deep trough. Above this were seats. There was a shallow channel in front of the seats with flowing water. People cleaned themselves with a sponge on the end of a stick, and then rinsed it in the channel.

After the bath

Roman men often stayed at the baths until closing time. After their bath they could buy a snack at one of the food stalls called a *popina*, walk in the gardens, read in the library, listen to a concert or poetry recital, or play board games such as chess, backgammon, and gambling with dice.



At the end of the day the water was simply emptied out of the baths. **Aqueducts** brought in fresh water everyday. Aqueducts were pipes set into bridges or laid underground.

Sample Short Past Paper Questions: Baths

1. Describe the main features of a *palaestra*. What activities took place there?
2. Describe the main features of the *caldarium* in a Roman baths building.
3. What was an apodyterium?
4. Mention two uses of olive oil in the Roman world.
5. What was a *tepidarium*?
6. What was a frigidarium?
7. How were the baths heated?
8. What was a hypocaust? Describe its main features.
9. Mention the names of two areas in the Roman baths and say what their function was.

Sample Long Past Paper Questions: Baths

10.2013

- (i) In which area of a Roman baths' building would you find a hypocaust? (2)
- (ii) Describe the main features of a hypocaust and say how it functioned. (6)
- (iii) Imagine you are a Roman on a visit to the baths. Describe your route through the baths and what you did in each area you visited. (12)

11.2006

- (i) Name **two** of the objects in the illustration. (4)
- (ii) How were these **two** objects used? (4)
- (iii) Imagine you are a Roman who has just returned from a visit to the baths. Describe the route you took through the baths **and** what you did at each stage of your visit.
(12)

10. GLADIATORIAL GAMES

Public sports and shows in Rome were called *ludi* (*games*). There were three kinds: theatrical performances (*ludi scaenici*); chariot races (*ludi circenses*) and gladiator fights and beast hunts (*munera*). At first these public events were staged together to form an entire day's entertainment. By imperial times, however, each event could be seen as a separate entertainment, often in its own specifically designed building.

Gladiator fights and beast hunts (*Munera*)

Why were there munera?

Gladiator fights were originally held as part of ancient funeral ceremonies. But during the republic politicians realized that by staging the Games they could (1) keep people entertained, (2) leave less time for them to stir trouble and (3) win votes. They were usually staged to mark important events like a battle victory, but because they were so popular the number of days given to the games grew, and by the time of the emperors there were 93 days of games. The games also grew in size. The emperor Trajan presided over a show that lasted 177 days in which 10,000 gladiators took part. The Games were free of charge.

Where were the munera held?



The Games were first held in a wooden stadium built especially for the events. However, by AD81 the Colosseum, known originally as the Flavian amphitheatre, had been built in Rome by the emperor Titus. It was constructed after his capture of Jerusalem by 50,000 Jewish slaves.

The Colosseum was a huge stone stadium with an oval arena in the middle. The arena measured 86 yards long x 59 yards wide. It was surrounded by a wall with netting on top to prevent the animals jumping into the crowd, and covered in sand (arena is the Latin for sand). Dark sand was used in order to soak up the colour of the blood. Underneath the sand were wooden planks, and underneath the planks were the cells for the wild animals.

The Colosseum had four floors, eighty entrances at ground floor, and could hold up to 50,000 people. It was the largest stadium in the empire. On sunny days an awning (*velarium*) was suspended from poles around the top of the Colosseum to shelter people from sun or rain. The pulvinar was the emperor's box. It had special soft seats and its own canopy.

What happened at the munera?

1. The Games began in the morning with a grand parade of gladiators, musicians, dancers, jugglers and priests past the seat (pulvinar) of the emperor or presiding official.
2. Then the wild beasts were brought out. Some rare animals were simply displayed. Others were made perform circus tricks. One emperor even introduced the amazing spectacle of tightrope-walking elephants. Most animals, such as bears, panthers and bulls, were forced to fight each other or else were hunted down with spears, daggers, bows and arrows. Other times they were let loose on terrified prisoners. Many fights involved the killing of thousands of animals and humans. As many as 5,000 animals might die in a single day.
3. After the beasts came comic acts, mimes and mock fights.
4. Gladiator fights took place in the afternoon. Most gladiators were slaves, criminals or prisoners of war who were forced to fight each other, but some were paid volunteers. A very small number of gladiators were women. There were many types of gladiators, each with different weapons and costumes, and different types were usually pitted against each other.

Gladiators often fought to the death, though anyone who was badly injured could appeal to the emperor for mercy. After consulting the crowd, the emperor gave a signal with his thumb. Experts think that the 'thumbs up' sign meant that the gladiator should be allowed to live.

Victorious gladiators received money and a crown, and those who survived long enough could become rich and famous. After many victories, a gladiator might be given a wooden sword which meant that he was a free man. Many freed fighters became trainers at special gladiator schools.



The different types of gladiator

- The **Samnite** carried a short sword and large oblong shield; he wore a helmet with a visor and plume.
- The **Murmillio** was a heavily armed gladiator who wore a helmet with a crest that looked like a fish. He also had a sword and a large shield.
- The **Retarius** had no armour and fought with a net and a trident.
- The **Thracian** had a curved dagger and a small round shield.
- The **Secutor** was armed with a helmet, short sword and shield; he chased the Thracian.
- The **Bestiarii** were gladiators who fought against wild animals.

Sample Short Past Paper Questions: Games

1. What was the *Colosseum*? What happened there?
2. Name two types of gladiator and describe how they were armed.

Sample Long Past Paper Questions: Games

3. 2009



Describe the main features of a Roman amphitheatre. (4)

(ii) Name **two** types of gladiator and say how they were armed. (4)

(iii) Imagine you are a successful gladiator who has just received the wooden sword.

Write a letter to a friend in which you look back on your career in the arena. (12)

11. CHARIOT RACING



Why were there Chariot Races?

Chariot races were originally part of religious festivals, but soon became incredibly popular as entertainment, mostly for the same reasons that the Games were popular.

Where were the races held?

Races were held at a specially designed racetrack, called a circus or hippodrome, and regularly attracted huge crowds. The largest racetrack was the Circus Maximus in Rome. It measured 550m x 180m and could seat 250,000 people, more than any sport stadium in the world today. It was oval in shape with each end flattened. There was a wall down the middle called a spina, and at each end of it there were three pillars; the chariots raced around these. There were marble seats for senators and an imperial box for the emperor. Poorer citizens stood at the back. People started arriving at dawn to get a good seat; unlike at the Games, men and women could sit together. The Circus Maximus was open for 240 days a year. Entrance was free.

What happened at the races?

1. The spectacle began with a parade, as musicians led in an official who started the races. This might be an important senator, or even the emperor himself. He and his attendants were followed by singers, and priests carrying images of the gods. At the blast of a trumpet, the official raised a white cloth and let it fall to the ground. This signalled the start of the races.
2. There were as many as 24 races in a day, with up to 12 chariots from 4 different teams. Teams were differentiated by the colours red, green, blue and white. Drivers raced counter-clockwise and each race lasted seven laps. At the end of each lap, a marker (located at the end of the spina) was turned over. Markers were in the shape of an egg or a dolphin.

The chariots were normally pulled by two horses (*bigae*) or four horses (*quadrigae*) but sometimes six or eight horses were used. The more horses there were the more difficult the chariot was to control. To stop themselves from falling off the charioteers wound the reins around their bodies.

They carried a knife to cut through them if they were thrown from the chariot. They also wore a light helmet.

The most dangerous part of the race came as the drivers turned the tight corner at each end of the track. Here they jostled for position as they tried to stay as closely to the spina in order to secure the shortest route around the bend. Chariots often collided, and it was common for drivers to be injured or killed. During the race, wreckage had to be cleared and the dead dragged away – slaves did this dangerous job.

A driver's life

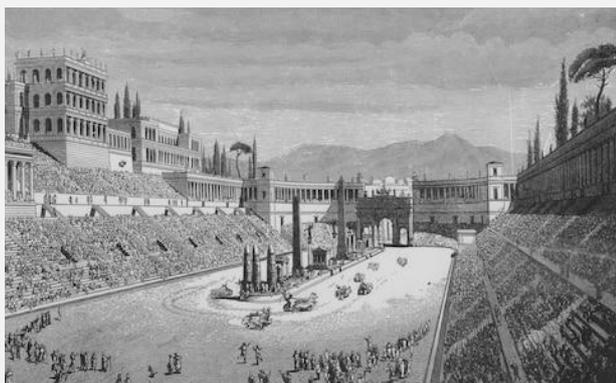
Most drivers were slaves but some were professionals who were paid large amounts of money to compete. Race winners were rewarded with money, a palm leaf of victory and instant fame. Each team or faction had its own stables and trainers and vets and stable boys. Supporters were fanatical and unpopular results could result in riots. Champions became rich and famous. However, although the life of a chariot-driver was glamorous, it could also be short; many drivers died in their early 20s.

Sample Short Past Paper Question: Chariot Racing

1. Describe what took place at the *Circus Maximus* in Rome.

Sample Long Past Paper Questions: Chariot Racing

2. **2002**



- (i) What activity is happening at the venue in the illustration? (4)
- (ii) Name a famous venue in Rome for this activity. (4)
- (iii) Imagine you are a Roman boy or girl and you have just returned home after spending a day at the above venue. You are anxious to tell your parents everything you have seen. Write down what you would tell them about the venue and about your exciting day there.

3. 2011

- (i) Name the four colours that identified the different teams in a chariot race.(4)
- (ii) Describe two of the main features of a Roman circus or chariot-racing stadium. (6)
- (iii) Imagine you are a charioteer who has just won a chariot-race at the *Circus Maximus*. Write a letter to a friend describing the event. (10)

4. 2018



Look at the illustration below of charioteers on a mosaic and answer the questions which follow:-

- (i) Which four colours identified the different teams in a chariot race? (4)
- (ii) Describe two of the main features of a chariot racing stadium. (4)
- (iii) Imagine you are a Roman boy or girl who has just spent the day at the *Circus Maximus* in Rome. Write a letter to a friend describing what happened at the races there. (12)